

SATURDAY ANALYST AND LEADER,

A Review and Record of Political, Literary, Artistic, and Social Events.

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12 Tea Spoons	0 16 0	1 4 0	1 7 0	1 16 0
2 Sauce Ladles	0 8 0	0 10 0	0 11 0	0 13 0
1 Gravy Spoon	0 7 0	0 10 0	0 11 0	0 13 0
4 Salt do. (gilt bowls) ..	0 6 0	0 10 0	0 12 0	0 14 0
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1 Pair Sugar Tongs	0 3 6	0 5 0	0 6 0	0 7 6
1 Pair Fish Carvers	1 0 0	1 10 0	1 14 0	1 18 0
1 Butter Knife	0 2 0	0 3 0	0 4 0	0 5 0
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Cause and Cure of Premature Decline, with full Directions for Restoration to Health and Vigor; being a Medical Essay on Nervousness, Indigestion, Loss of Memory, their Prevention and Cure; the result of twenty-five years' successful practice. By Dr. J. L. CUKYIS, No. 15, Albemarle Street, Piccadilly, London. Consultations from 10 to 3 and 6 to 8.

"The author has conferred a great boon by publishing this little work, which points out the source of decline in youth, or more frequently premature old age."—*Daily Telegraph*, March 27, 1856.

THE ALLEGED QUARREL BETWEEN GARIBALDI AND CAVOUR.

THE friends of Italian liberty have been startled by telegrams announcing that GARIBALDI has demanded the dismissal of CAVOUR and FARINI, and that the questions at issue will be left for the decision of the Parliament, which is shortly to assemble at Turin.

In the absence of any definite information concerning the plans of GARIBALDI and those of CAVOUR, we can do no more than express our deep regret that a serious collision should have occurred, if, indeed, the news is true. In another article we have expressed opinions, which we share with others in London who are usually well informed, that the handsome recognition of GARIBALDI's campaign, which is made in the State Paper of CAVOUR, might be taken as an indication of a happy approximation of the two great men to whom Italy is so profoundly indebted; and if the rupture has actually occurred, no exertions should be spared to establish a just agreement. Italy has no statesman like CAVOUR, and no hero like GARIBALDI. They both desire to reach the same goal; the friends of each should prevent estrangement from taking place.

ITALIAN LEADERS AND QUARRELS.

WE cannot overrate the merit of GARIBALDI, the "happy warrior," whom "every man in arms would wish to be," the simple-minded patriot who adds the mildness of our own age to the grandeur of heroic times, but we must not forget the honour due to CAVOUR, and we are reminded that the statesman has a necessary and noble task to perform by the publication of a memorandum addressed by King VICTOR EMMANUEL to his representatives at foreign courts. In this able document the position of Italy is plainly set forth, and in whatever country it is read, it will excite enthusiasm for the greatest cause of our times, and admiration for the government, that, undeterred by diplomatic threats, and not dismayed by the immense military preparation of Austria, has had the courage to step forth again as the champion of Italian rights, and the honesty to avow the objects which it seeks to accomplish, and the principles upon which its proceedings are carried on.

Count CAVOUR reminds Europe what the Peace of Villafranca accomplished, and what it left undone. It left parts of North and Central Italy able to control their own affairs, and "if this transformation could have been extended to the whole of the Peninsula, the Italian question would by this time have been entirely settled," but, as the Count adds, "unhappily the Peace of Villafranca could only include a portion of Italy. It left Venetia under the domination of Austria, and it produced no change in Central Italy, nor in the provinces remaining under the temporal domination of the Holy See." For the present, the Sardinian minister tells us he has no intention of discussing the position of Venetia,—"it will suffice for us to call to mind, that as long as this question shall not be solved, Europe cannot enjoy a solid and sincere peace." But although Europe is not yet quite ready for a movement to liberate Venice, at perhaps the expense of a general war, Count CAVOUR asserts that no such scruples can affect Central and Southern Italy, and after recapitulating the inefficacious efforts made by various Cabinets to induce a reform in the Neapolitan States, he adds, "what justice and reason could not obtain, a revolution has accomplished—a prodigious revolution, which has filled Europe with astonishment, by the almost providential manner in which it has been accomplished, and excited its admiration for the illustrious warrior whose glorious exploits recall all the most wondrous deeds recorded in poetry or history."

It will strengthen the Sardinian Government, not only throughout Italy, but all over Europe, that it has thus identified itself with GARIBALDI. Count CAVOUR never did a wiser thing than when he thus endorsed the national sentiment by joining in the acclamations which on all sides greet the hero of the occasion, and dissipated all the idle stories of personal jealousy and political disunion. By this manly and judicious conduct the name of VICTOR EMMANUEL is thoroughly harmonised with the aspirations of the Italian people, and republican movements are prevented by being rendered unnecessary; whereas, if there had been any discrepancy between the action of the Court of Turin and the thoroughly popular achievements of GARIBALDI, serious disunion and consequent disorder must have been the result.

Satisfied of the good faith of VICTOR EMMANUEL and his great minister, and devoutly believing in the patriotic devotion and military genius of GARIBALDI, Venetia will patiently wait until her turn comes; but the Roman States could not wait any longer, and it was high time to put an end to the

unsatisfactory position which, out of deference to European Governments, the cabinet of Sardinia had assumed. If it did not approve of GARIBALDI's plans it could not deserve the support of the Italians and the admiration of the world. If it did sympathise with that great man, who appears as the incarnation of Italian liberty, it was bound to do his work in the Roman States, and not permit the communication between the north and south to be cut off, and scenes of massacre and ferocity to be enacted by the unprincipled mercenaries which the Pope had summoned to his aid. It would have been better if CAVOUR's avowed approval of GARIBALDI had not waited for his success, but great allowances must be made for the extremely difficult position of the Sardinian minister, and due praise awarded for the step he has now taken, which we can only regard as having been contemplated from the beginning, if circumstances should render it advisable.

Count CAVOUR is justly severe in his animadversions on the Papal Government. He complains of its having declined to take any part in the national movement, and of its placing itself "in open hostility with the populations which have not succeeded in throwing off its yoke." To keep them down, he says, it has made an improper use of its spiritual power, and through its obstinate persistence in misconduct, "it has been reserved to the Roman States to offer in our century the strange and sad spectacle of a Government reduced to maintain its authority over its subjects by means of foreign mercenaries, blinded by fanaticism, or excited by bait of promises which could not be fulfilled, except by throwing whole populations into distress." Such facts could not fail to provoke the indignation of Italians, as Count CAVOUR explains; and it was obvious that the "revolution having triumphed at Naples, could not be stopped at the frontier of the Roman States." Under such circumstances VICTOR EMMANUEL's Government could not, by remaining passive, practically desert the Italian cause, and permit the opposing forces of Italian action and Papal reaction to deluge the centre of the land with needless carnage, and introduce elements of disorder that could not be controlled.

These arguments appear to us unanswerable, and no one will question them who does not wish to stop the Italian movement before it has reached its legitimate result. The memorandum assures those whom it may concern that the Sardinian troops will respect Rome and the territory which surrounds it, and concludes by expressing a hope that the spectacle of national unanimity will convert the Pope, by reminding him that, he was some years ago "its sublime inspirer."

Success has happily attended the first movements of the Sardinian army, and CIALDINI has proved a better general than LAMORICIERE, whose division of his forces was singularly unwise. The victory near Ancona may prove the turning-point of the struggle, and the Pope had better take the hint to be off.

For the general comfort and progress of humanity we hope that he will be obstinate to the last. As a political system, Popery is fundamentally connected with despotism and inimical to the spread of knowledge and the recognition of human right; and Pío Nono will be, by force of the opposition he will excite, a greater reformer than LUTHER, if he will only be owlish and mulish to the end of his days. To our way of thinking, ANTONELLI is a model minister for such a government; and LAMORICIERE, with his band of mercenaries, forms a fitting guard.

By all means let the Papacy be firmly wedded to FRANCIS JOSEPH, and let it canonize both BOMBA and BOMBALINA. In former times evil powers have stood together for common safety. Let them now adhere for common destruction. A Pope with temporary occupation of a palace and a garden, which he preserves by help of French bayonets, out of the ruins of a sovereignty, which his own political crimes have lost, will be an instructive sight; and the chair of St. PETER supported by Zouaves, will be a spectacle of superstition in dotage which ridicule can kill.

MR. BAZLEY, M.P., ON COTTON SUPPLY.

MR. BAZLEY has just brought before the country one of the most important subjects that can engage its attention; and if there is not much novelty in the considerations which he suggests, it needs but little investigation to perceive their bearing upon our social and political condition. Mr. BAZLEY has for many years endeavoured to stimulate some movement which should lead to the extensive growth of Cotton in India and other dependencies of the British crown, so that we should not rely almost exclusively upon the production of the American continent, which may not always

keep pace with the immense demand of our increasing manufactures. Unfortunately those who are most immediately concerned have not taken up the subject in the only practical way—that of devoting capital to its production; and when a thousand circulars were recently issued inviting co-operation in the promotion of a Company to purchase Cotton in India, many who ought to have been foremost, appear to have stayed away.

The supply of Cotton, or of some equivalent raw material, has assumed an importance which few are aware of. Every one knows that within the space of a generation one of the most enormous trades which the world has ever seen has sprung up in Lancashire, giving employment to large bodies of operatives, and making colossal fortunes for fortunate spinners; but there are not many who will not be startled by the statistics which Mr. BAZLEY brings forward. He tells us that our last year's consumption of Cotton was 1,000,000,000 lbs.—an array of figures that almost bewilders our powers of enumeration, and defies our efforts at definite comprehension. Of this prodigious mass of raw material, America furnishes 800,000,000 lbs., while 120,000,000 lbs. come from other foreign sources, and only 80,000,000 lbs. from British Colonies. This last fact is by no means creditable to us, when it is remembered that the Cotton soils of India could produce more than the world's consumption; when portions of Australia are fitted for its growth; and Natal might, with adequate encouragement, yield a very large supply.

Directly and indirectly our Cotton trade is believed to employ four or five millions of people—a number very much larger than the entire population of Switzerland, Portugal, or Egypt; about equal to that of Belgium, and nearly sufficient to fill two cities as big as London. In the various processes of this enormous trade seventy millions of capital are employed, and thus it will be seen that any material disturbance in the supply of the raw material must occasion commercial, social, and political convulsions upon a gigantic scale; and from such convulsions we cannot feel secure while eight-tenths of our consumption comes from a single source of supply. At any season we may find that the yield of the Cotton farms of America is considerably reduced. A disease may attack the Cotton shrub like that which has devastated our potato fields, or ruined the vines, and any such action, even to a moderate extent, would involve large capitalists in ruin, and bring hundreds of thousands to the verge of starvation.

We ought, also, not to forget the political causes that may interfere with the planters' operations. American Cotton grows under the curse of slavery; and if the Southern States obstinately refuse to make any provision for the gradual transition towards free labour, we may rest assured that sooner or later a violent struggle will arise, and the slave system will perish in a moral and political earthquake that must for a time interfere with industrial pursuits.

If wheat fails in Europe, America abounds with it. If the crops are short in the United States, Russia and the shores of the Danube have ample harvests. Thus mercantile exchanges can always neutralize partial disasters, because we are not dependent upon any single locality. Not so, however, with Cotton; if the American crops fail we are undone, for there is no other country or combination of countries that could supply the void.

Those who have large capital embarked in Cotton manufactures are working, as it were, over a volcano; but from the enormous number of persons directly or indirectly concerned, the question is national rather than local, and it is not too much to say that the stability of our institutions depends upon the meteorological and other chances which the American planter may have to meet. It is certainly not wise to hang so much upon one hook, to trust so much in one boat, or hazard such mighty stakes upon a single throw.

Imagine, for a moment, that four or five millions of persons were in distress, and that the mill-owners and the operatives, finding themselves involved in common disaster, took an angry survey of the political as well as of the economical circumstances that impeded their industry. In the first place our present amount of taxation could not be borne, and aristocratic government or mis-government is intimately connected with the profligate extravagance of our public expenditure. Mr. BAZLEY reminds us that the State extorts annually a sum equal to all the capital directly engaged in the Cotton trade; that is to say, that our yearly taxation which treads a barren round, amounts to a sum, which more rationally expended, is sufficient to employ, clothe, and feed four or five millions of people. With such facts before us, there can be no doubt of the political and social disturbance that would be occasioned by a failure of the Cotton supply.

Our financial and political security demand that we should place ourselves with regard to Cotton, in as good a position as we are with respect to corn, so that, whether temporary deficiencies occur in the East or in the West, our supplies may not fail. But there are other reflections which are worth the consideration of great manufacturers, like Mr. BAZLEY, who can take a statesmanlike view of industrial affairs.

We suggest the consideration of the propriety of making efforts to utilize the scores of fibres which in India and other countries are now completely wasted. There is no necessity that Cotton should be exclusively employed for a great variety of articles now composed of it. It will probably remain the cheapest raw material of which certain kinds of clothing can be made, but other fibres are capable of producing textile fabrics, that might in many cases advantageously take the place of cotton goods. Mr. BAZLEY will agree with us that a thickly-peopled country like England cannot have too many or too great a variety of industrial pursuits, and it would be better, instead of having another million of persons employed in the Cotton trade, to see them engaged in working up some of the fibres to which we have alluded. The plain, alpe, and cactus tribes are scarcely used at present for textile purposes, nor the numerous grasses of Asia and Africa. We cordially approve of the efforts to extend the growth of Cotton, as Mr. BAZLEY desires, but we should also like to see funds collected and appropriated for experiments in the utilization of other fibres.

SOCIAL SCIENCE AND ITS CONGRESSES.

THE season has again come round when the "Social Congressionists" will be adding another deposit to the mass of undigested materials they have been collecting for the last three years. Referring to the article "Reform, political and social," in No. 546 of this journal, we proceed to make some remarks on this most important of all subjects.

Sociology is the science which teaches what laws, institutions, customs, conventionalisms, are best adapted to insure "human well-being." But institutions, usages, conventionalisms, and laws, are the products and outgrowths of public opinion and public feeling, of the beliefs and desires existent in the mind of the community. True it is that the former are generally always behind the latter, and that for the very reason that they stand, the one to the other, in the relation of cause and effect. Moreover, there is in general a strong tendency in masses, as in individuals, to remain in the state in which they happen to be at any given time. Being up, people are loth to go to bed; being a-bed, they find it irksome to get up; having been accustomed to a particular sort of dress or diet, they can hardly be got to change it, even for the better, and when health requires; having contracted a habit, by long use, they are reluctant to discontinue it, however it may prejudice them. And so with nations: we all know how long it is ere reforms that have been enounced in theory are reduced to practice. Thus, we see the tendency to continue in the beaten track, counteracts the conviction that there is a better road, and the desire to travel in the most comfortable way. But though the effect, of course, follows the cause, and follows it, as indeed we sometimes see in the physical world, but slowly, there is no question of the regular sequence; and this is the reason of the established axiom that all changes in the social organism are invariably preceded by a corresponding change in the convictions and sentiments of the people. Hence it rigorously follows that sociology, defined as above, cannot be constructed until morology has assumed the form of an exact science. We must be able to distinguish that voluntary conduct which of its very essence necessarily tends to human well-being, from that which is only indirectly harmful in consequence of absurd beliefs and prejudices against it; and from that which is intrinsically and unalterably pernicious, any foolish superstition in its favour to the contrary notwithstanding; we must be able to do this before we can say what laws, institutions, and customs are adapted by their spontaneous workings to evolve happiness-producing conduct on the part of the community, and avert that which is of an opposite character. Hence the question arises, in what does happiness consist? Those who understand anything of scientific procedures will see at once that a question of this sort may be answered in two ways. One is by an empirical enumeration of the particulars in which happiness consists, or, at least, is supposed to consist, by the respondent: an enumeration which, even supposing it possible to make it complete at any given time, must always be imperfect, because it is merely provisional, and does not take into account prospective changes of sentiment and opinion, but ignores the new desires and beliefs that may arise in the future. The other answer assumes the form of a general demonstration. Disregarding this or that detail, as a mathematical formula takes no cognizance of the particular cases in vulgar arithmetic, comprised within the universal law which it enounces, it specifies the conditions upon which alone "well-being" is realizable wherever sentient creatures exist, whether in this atomic corner of the universe, or in the globes that revolve about the stars too distant for recognition by our strongest telescopes. To determine what is practically expedient in any transient and provisional phase of society is within even the capacity of an idiot, whose mind is not an utter blank. That it is expedient when at Rome to do as Rome does, or at least not to do what Rome doesn't approve, with the Inquisition and its racks and stakes and dungeons

before your eyes, has grown into a proverb; and eating pork in Turkey, or beef in Hindostan, when persecution and assassination would be the penalty, would certainly be inexpedient. But the real question is, ought such institutions, prejudices, and customs, as those which inflict penalties on the eating of harmless substances, to exist? What is the test by which to try them? The Hindoos and the Turks will say that their prejudices and practices are perfectly "natural;" that they grow out of the "inherent ineradicable instincts of human nature," and will point to prejudices and practices in Europe, which, in principle, are every whit as irrational. Mr. JOHN STUART MILL, in his work "On Liberty," (the most recent work that bears on this subject which has been published by a really great authority), writes as follows:—"Every one who receives the protection of society owes a return for the benefit, and the fact of living in society renders it indispensable that each should be bound to observe a certain line of conduct towards the rest. This conduct consists first in not *injuring* the interests of one another, or rather certain interests which, either by express legal provision or by tacit understanding, ought to be considered as *rights*." The Italics are ours, and we are bound to say that this throws not the least light upon the subject. What does "injuring" consist in? What are, or "ought to be considered," *rights*? In some parts there is a "right" established both by "tacit understanding" and "express legal provision," that every one shall have liberty, in the local idiom, to "larrup his own nigger;" and to interfere with that right is an "injury." We shall never advance one step in morality and sociology while rights and injuries remain the vague and undefined creatures of the crude opinions and prejudices that not only differ from generation to generation, but simultaneously under every degree of latitude and longitude, throughout the whole face of the earth. We want some fixed principle, independent of mere ephemeral opinion and conventionalism; some real objective positive law or relation of things, not the accident, but the criterion and the test whether laws, customs, and institutions are of their own inherent tendency, happiness-producing, or the reverse. And the answer to the question, what does happiness consist in, will settle this inclusively.

It is obvious to every one that happiness consists in the having and doing of certain things; or, to use a term which comprehends both having and doing, in the satisfying of certain wants, or rather in certain wants being satisfied. But it is not in the satisfying of all wants that may be felt that permanent happiness consists. The satisfying of some wants may be pleasurable for the time being, and productive of permanent injury to oneself, or to others, or both. The wants then in the satisfying of which the happiness of mankind considered in its totality consists, are those, and those only, of which every one is satisfiable by each person without prejudice to the satisfying of all of them by every person. Because, if JONES can't satisfy some particular want without preventing somebody else, as BROWN, from satisfying that or some other want, then the happiness of society will be interfered with whenever that want is felt and sought to be satisfied. If it be asked "what if JONES does feel that objectionable want?" The answer is, that that is a pertinent question in ethology, a very important branch of sociology which teaches how human character should be formed by suitable influence and conditions, so that those desires and convictions only shall be felt that prompt to happiness-producing conduct; but that it is not a pertinent question in morality, the province of which is simply to determine what that conduct is. To put, then, the above explanation in a scientific form. "The happiness of the human race depends on the satisfying of that list of wants, every one of which is satisfiable by each person without prejudice to the satisfying of all the wants in the list by every person." It now only remains to ascertain what these wants which we will call *legitimate wants* are; and having arrived at the perfect abstract formula we shall have no difficulty in the practical elaboration. To the point—there are some universal wants on which the very existence of the individual, and the race depends; the want of breathing atmospheric air, the want of food for example. And the satisfying of the want of food by one person neither prevents himself from satisfying that want in future, or the want of breathing in the present or the future; nor does it prevent anybody else from satisfying, in the present or the future, either of these two wants of breathing and of food. To these we may add the wants of clothing, habitation, health, education (meaning mental and bodily culture), knowledge (meaning acquaintance with the laws of our own nature and the nature of things), liberty (the disposal of oneself as one pleases, not as somebody else pleases); and it will be found that each of these *principal legitimate wants* (as we will call them) is satisfiable by each person without prejudice to the satisfying of all of them, by every person. Even in the case where there was but one loaf among a dozen people, and that loaf was got possession of and consumed by one of them, the nonsatisfying of the want of food by the remaining eleven would be ascribable to the scarcity of food, or to its unfair distribution—it would be an inaccuracy or a quibble, or rather sheer nonsense, to say that the want of food on the part of the monopolist, was of its nature not satisfiable without preventing the like want from being satisfied by others. And, to proceed—if there is any other want which is satisfiable without preventing any one else from satisfying it, and also without preventing anybody from satisfying the above-specified principal wants of food, clothing, &c., then it is a legitimate want that every one should have liberty to satisfy; and any prejudice or belief that condemns it is manifestly wrong.

We have enumerated "health" among the principal wants;

and there is an explanatory remark which occurs to us here; it is a want that differs from such wants as food, clothing, and habitation, in this respect—society can, *positively speaking*, provide that these last be satisfied in the case of any of its members; while to restore an invalid to health might be impossible; but, *negatively speaking*, though society cannot secure health to a man dying of consumption, it can take care that no one shall do things prejudicial to the health of another; and thus it can effectually secure to each the liberty of enjoying health so far as the acts of others, militating against such enjoyment, are concerned.

And this brings us to the definition of the terms "injury" and "rights" mentioned above. It will be found that vague and uncertain as the word injury is, the thing signified is always resolvable into being prevented, or disabled from having some want or wants satisfied. It is true that some wants are now considered "legitimate," that are not legitimate, such as the want to hold slaves in some parts of the world, and that to interfere with the satisfying of these illegitimate wants is regarded as an injury—still the fact remains that injuries everywhere, in the last analysis, mean the being disabled or prevented from satisfying some want or wants. Our definition, therefore, of "injury" or "harm," is "the being prevented or disabled from satisfying the *legitimate* want." And, as regards what are called "rights," it will be found that these everywhere resolve themselves into the satisfying of some want or wants, though they may be in the highest degree illegitimate. According to our definition, then, "human rights," consist in the satisfaction of the *legitimate* wants. When it is said that "liberty" is one of the rights of man, all that can be meant in scientific language is that the want to dispose of oneself as one pleases, is a legitimate want, the satisfying of which is good for mankind and ought to be secured to each individual by the whole power of which society in its aggregate is master. This, of course, applies to human beings in their average normal state; in some states of disease, for instance, it may be undesirable to satisfy the craving for food. And now to illustrate the principle explained, by examples. Suppose it be desired to try whether the want to get drunk is a legitimate want;—we find that though satisfiable by each person without prejudice to the satisfying of it by anybody else, it is not satisfiable without prejudice to the health of the person getting drunk. Suppose the want to hold slaves be tried by this test;—here we find that while A is holding B in slavery, B cannot be holding A or any one else in slavery, it is therefore a want not satisfiable without prejudice to the satisfying thereof by others; moreover, it is subversive of the satisfying of all wants whatever on the part of the slaves, who are entirely dependent on their owner's will, and who may be deprived of food, clothing, education, &c., at his caprice. In this short paper we are necessarily restricted to the briefest outline of the theory, which, in its complete development, reduces morality to an exact science. Moral conduct, then, may be defined as that voluntary conduct which is consistent with the satisfying of legitimate wants by all mankind. If I can satisfy some want that I may chance to feel, without preventing any other person from satisfying that want, and without preventing any one (including myself) from satisfying the principle wants of food, clothing, health, education, knowledge, liberty; why should not I be allowed to satisfy it? There can be no reason given why I should not, except that there is a prejudice against it in the mind of some individual or class, which is thus *ipso facto* proved to be absurd. And thus we have here a test, furnished by a fixed objective relation of things, for determining whether any given law, custom, or institution, is founded in reason, or mischievous and absurd. True it is, that while cruel and irrational ordinances, usages, beliefs, and institutions exist, it may not be expedient in practice to satisfy those *legitimate* wants—to do those innocent or positively beneficial things—which are proscribed and punished by them. But the question of practical expediency is a mere surface-question; the mere A B C of the matter. What we want to know is whether a law, a habit, an institution, is in conformity with man's nature and the nature of things or not, and this knowledge is afforded by the test in question, and by no other method that has ever been even so much as suggested or approached.

SUCCESSFUL SOCIALISM.

TIME in his old age and declining years—for doth not Dr. CUMMING advertise us that his latter end is near at hand? Time, we say, is working stranger and stranger wonders every day. We settled it long ago that there was nothing new under the Sun—"nothing new, nothing true, and it don't matter," as the Yankee philosopher has it. As we have advanced into the middle of the enlightened nineteenth century, we have all become more or less used up; we have settled it within ourselves that nothing could occur to surprise us, that we have fathomed the depths of all that is wonderful, that we have exhausted everything original, and that the days of heroes, of strange revolutions, of romance, and of Utopian dreams, have passed away for ever. But just as we are sinking into this comatose state of indifference, just as we are folding our hands, and going to sleep, under the impression that the day of fulfilment is over and past, and that there is nothing left for us to do, but to doze through the remainder of our existence, and enjoy the fruits already stored and garnered, lo, and behold, at this moment Old Time starts up before us in the guise of a young harlequin, and plays all the pranks of his youth over again. No heroes now-a-days? Look at GUISEPPE GARIBOLDI! Nothing strange? Why here are

a philandering Colonel and a newspaper correspondent taking a capital, and turning the tide of a revolution with a telegram—a flash of lightning! Nothing new? A conqueror entering a fallen city in a railway train, with his carpet bag in his hand. Nothing strange indeed; why Austria is framing a constitution, and an English Prince of the Blood is preparing to receive the homage of the people, who not a hundred years ago sacrificed their best blood to banish the rule of his family from their land. But there are even stranger things occurring in these rejuvenescent times. Doctrines which, even within the last decade, were pronounced dangerous and damnable, are discovering germs of truth, and are beginning to be accepted as not so dangerous, not so damnable, and not so Utopian after all. There, for example, is the People's Charter. How we well-to-do philosophers scouted and pooh-pooh'd that a dozen years ago! It was a mere absurdity, a fevered and licentious dream, a wild impossibility. Yet since then one of the points has been established. The Property Qualification of Members of Parliament has been abolished, and the world goes on much as usual. Then there was Socialism. What a many-headed monster was that! It was sheer madness, and nothing else. ST. SIMON, ROBERT OWEN, LOUIS BLANC, and MR. MAURICE, were simply fit subjects for a commission of lunacy—no, not for a commission, for Hanwell, or Colney Hatch, without judge or jury. They could not have more conclusively established their hopeless insanity, if like the Earl of KINGSTON, they had denied the right of the Bishops to sit in the House of Lords.

But in these wonderful days even Socialism is beginning to wear a less terrible aspect. The monster has not so many heads as he had; he is not half so repulsive in aspect as we thought him. Like the DEVIL, he is turning out, on better acquaintance, to be not so black as he was painted.

For the proof let us go to Rochdale. Here we have Socialist principles in actual practice among the working men, and what is more, the practice is successful, and has stood the trial of some years. It is not the rampant Socialism of ST. SIMON or ROBERT OWEN exactly; nor does it aspire to the universal scope aimed at by M. LOUIS BLANC. It does not pretend to be the panacea for all the ills of society; nor does it assume to be potent enough entirely to cure one of them. Nevertheless, it has effected a great improvement in the condition of the poor man, and it both works well and pays. The Rochdale Society of Equitable Pioneers, which has since been the parent of many similar institutions, both in Rochdale and elsewhere, was founded in 1844, the object being to enable the working classes to become independent of the tyranny of capital. It began by forty working men contributing three pence apiece. In the course of a few weeks their three-pences amounted to £28; with this small sum the forty pioneers opened a little shop for the sale of groceries, butter, flour, and other provisions of the kind. At first the shop was only opened on Saturday night, and was managed gratuitously by the promoter. It was up-hill work for some years to keep the concern afloat; but it continued gradually to attract customers, and shortly after the failure of the Rochdale Savings Bank, the capital of the store was trebled in twelve months. At the present moment there are, in Rochdale, three co-operative societies, owning among them a capital of no less than £60,000, the whole of that large amount having been subscribed by men of the working classes. The original society has a grocery and provision warehouse, a butcher's shop, a drapery and clothing shop, and shops for tailoring and shoe-making, its capital being upwards of £20,000. The plan upon which the business is conducted is as nearly as possible that which is pursued by public companies generally, with the addition of an educational scheme; and a certain limitation as to the scale of profit payable in cash. Each member is expected to purchase, by degrees, five shares of £1 each; but is not allowed to hold more than one hundred, and upon these he receives five per cent. per annum interest, and no more. The remainder of the profit is devoted to two purposes: the first is the maintenance of a free library, news-rooms, and evening classes for the members. The other is a dividend fund, or drawback, which is divided among the customers of the store, in proportion to their purchases. This latter dividend is often larger than the first; since a man who spends £25 in the store has a dividend of £3 placed to his credit, as a sort of discount upon his purchases. Thus the store is, in fact, the purchasing agent of its members. The members, collectively, as shareholders, obtain goods at wholesale prices, sell them at retail prices, and at the end of the year divide the profits among themselves, in the manner described. The store is also a Savings Bank, and receives deposits from its members up to the amount of £100, paying interest at the rate of five per cent. for the use of the money. The advantages of this Association are thus plainly stated by one of its founders:—"We can do with fewer overlookers than a master manufacturer, because with us every man is an overlooker, having strong interest in the quality of his neighbour's work as well as his own. We have less waste, because every man feels with us, that he has an interest in avoiding it. We can always secure the best workmen, because with us they will have the current rate of wages and profits in addition. Our working, therefore, will be more economical than that of our competitors; and, as every manufacturer knows, the profits of the cotton trade depend on small economies." Another great advantage, in addition to all the others, is that the customers at these co-operative stores are enabled to purchase unadulterated and genuine goods. It should be mentioned, also, that one of the most strict rules of the Association is that no member shall be allowed to have goods on credit. He may be a shareholder in the concern, or he may be a depositor to the full amount of £100; but he cannot have

goods without paying for them over the counter. He may withdraw a portion of the money he has invested; but that process must be duly gone through, and the transaction squared at once. It is well observed by a writer in "Frazer's Magazine," who seems to have been convinced almost against his will, by what he saw at Rochdale—that "no better education, practical, intellectual, and moral, could have been given to the working classes of that town than that which their store, and mills, and factory—for the store has been the parent of both these latter—have given and are giving them. They are learning self-respect, self-command, and self-knowledge. They have learnt, most of them, to regard the rights and goodwill of capitalists, employers, and wealthy neighbours; to comprehend something of economical laws, and to understand the suicidal folly of strikes and riots."

Here, then, we have several notable examples of the successful working of trade societies conducted according to the principles of communion. It must be observed, however, that the communism practised by the Rochdale pioneers is divested of the impracticable crotchets which have defeated all former efforts in the same direction. The rights of private property are fully recognised, and the constitution of the Society is especially designed to foster and promote energy, self-reliance, and prudence. The store helps no one who does not help himself; and the advantages which it affords are meted out in proportion to the value of the co-operation of its members. These co-operative stores are, in fact, nothing more nor less than a modification of Joint-Stock Companies. And why should not working men subscribe capital, form boards of directors, and carry on business by combination, as well as their betters? We have more than enough of wild speculations, conducted without capital, by boards of direction composed of penniless adventurers, utterly without either money, honesty, or capacity. The object of many of these is simply to put money into the pockets of directors and officials, at the expense of a credulous and too-confiding public. The working-man's co-operative store is an institution of quite another kind. Its whole and sole object is mutual advantage; and while each shareholder and member of the Society is entitled to a voice in the election of its directors and managers, there is a permanent guarantee that the capital of the Company can never be diverted from its legitimate purpose. We hope to see the example so worthily set by the pioneers of Rochdale followed by all the great towns in the kingdom; for we cannot doubt that all efforts of the kind, if energetically and carefully conducted and kept within proper limits, must prove commercially successful, and greatly redound to the advantage of the working classes.

THE HELMSHORE MASSACRE.

THE curtain has fallen on the Helmsshore tragedy. The inquest has been holden and verdict given, but we very much question the satisfaction that verdict will give to the public in general and the relatives of the sufferers in particular. The latter, however, will have their remedy at law against the East Lancashire Company. Let us now proceed to analyse the evidence, and see how far the jury have fulfilled or disappointed our expectations of a more satisfactory verdict than that returned after the Round Oak accident. One of the first witnesses called swore, my name is THOMAS DUCKWORTH, I live in Ingle-street, Haslingdon, and am a cordwainer. I left Manchester in the second excursion train about half-past eleven that night. I was in that portion of the train which did not break loose. We stopped at one station between Manchester and Bury, again at Bury, then at Ramsbottom, where I got out and fetched a gill of rum to oblige a friend who was with me, and then returned and got into the train. The public-house is close to the station. The rum was drank amongst us. One of the party asked the guard of the train to drink, and he replied, "I'll be with you altogether directly." The train was just then moving off, and in a minute or two he came into our carriage with his lamp, and drank and smoked a pipe with us till we newly reached Helmsshore station. He believed JOHN CHIPPENDALE to be the guard who drank the rum. SAMUEL GRINDROD, spindle-maker, of Bromley, another witness, swore he was a passenger by the train in question, and was in a first-class carriage, the one on which the couplings broke. They left Salford at five minutes to eleven. There were eight of us in the same compartment, although it was only built to carry six. When we got on the Helmsshore side of Ramsbottom station, a porter came to the door, and said it "was time for a small collection for having brought us so safely on our way." He did not get anything from any of us. One man, however, said, "I think I gave you mine at Manchester." JOHN ASHWORTH, another witness, swore, I was in the train, and was asleep till we got to Ramsbottom, when I and the others were awake up as we were leaving Ramsbottom by a porter, who came in and said, "You're looking snug, chaps; you have managed it sweetly; are you going to stand ought?" I gave him three-halfpence, and three others gave him something. We were six of us travelling in a first-class carriage with third-class tickets. The man then left us, and soon after we came to the Helmsshore station. Just as the carriages pulled up they re-bounded, the snap occurred, and they began to go back. I do not think any break was put on when we stopped; if there had been a break on I do not think the re-bound could have been so great.

Now, the evidence which we here quote, we think most important to the inquiry, and yet very little notice appears to have been taken of it by the Jury or Government Inspector. It raises a question in our minds whether the breaks were ever put on at all, when the train was stopping at Helmsshore, by these two precious attendants on

the train, one smoking and drinking, the other collecting halfpence from carriage to carriage; it does appear probable they paid no attention whatever to their breaks, for no evidence is given that any one saw, or heard, or felt them put on, and the effect of the long train stopping gradually going up a steep incline would be to elongate the couplings to their utmost, and on stopping, the strain would be very great indeed, and much more so than if the breaks had been properly applied and then released. We do not think that such a stoppage as this one at Helmsore could cause a compression of the buffers to any great extent, consequently there would be little or no rebound. What was there in the motion of this train to cause a great compression of the buffers? The train runs very slowly up a steep incline, and, as given in evidence, stopped very gently. Now, such being the case, all the couplings and buffers would be out to their greatest length, and would not be so compressed at stopping as to cause any rebound. (We stated in our notice of this subject, in our impression of Sept. 8th, that we did not believe in a rebound of the buffers, nor do we now, and we are confirmed in this our opinion by that of some very experienced railway officials, our friends). It was the great strain on weak couplings which caused the breakage, and might as well have happened on the road between the two stations as where it did. We are surprised to find no notice taken by the jury of this misconduct of the guards on that journey, which leads us to the conclusion, that if the guards would neglect their duty in one respect, they might in another.

So much for the immediate cause of the severance of the train, now for the next act of this disastrous affair: the train to which the accident happened was of thirty-one carriages, and had only one engine. The third, or last train, was of twenty-five carriages, and had two engines, consequently could and would run much faster, and might be presumed to overtake its heavier and weaker horsed predecessor, and this appears really to have been the case, for we are told they were ten minutes apart at Salford, and yet the collision took place at Helmsore, only two and a half minutes after the first of the two trains had stopped at Helmsore. Why such an arrangement as this? why were not the two engines on the thirty-one carriages, instead of on the lesser train of twenty-five? Had this been so, the third train would have been further behind, giving more time to work the breaks, and more time for the pursuers to have tried the experiment of turning the runaway carriages on to the other line. No doubt this could have been done, and have answered its purpose, but time was wanted to carry it out, hence the fallacy of Mr. SHAW'S and Colonel YOLLAND'S evidence, that it was quite as safe to let the following train run close after, as ten minutes behind a previous train. If more time had been given between these two trains, Mr. SHAW would have been able to carry out his purpose. Therefore want of sufficient time between the trains was an aggravating cause of the accident; how a Government Inspector can reconcile the theory just put forth by Colonel YOLLAND on this subject of time between trains with common sense and every day experience, surpasses our comprehension. Has not he passed railways as fit to open only on condition that the trains be worked by telegraph from station to station, and that at no one time shall any two trains be between any two stations, and why do the Board of Trade stipulate for such strict (but at the same time most necessary and proper) rules, if in Colonel YOLLAND'S opinion it is all fudge, and that trains may run as close together as local managers desire?

We must now ask why no mention has been made of the signals exhibited at Helmsore to coming trains on the night in question; it does not appear in evidence that any station signals were used to stop the last excursion train, probably the signals were no more lit than the carriages. The three thousand half-crowns were not worth the oil, &c., we dare say. The Government Inspector thinks the breaks were insufficient, the guards insufficient, and that it is decidedly objectionable for an engine to propel a train up an incline, and that the proper place for an extra engine is in front. So say we; but we go no further with Colonel YOLLAND, who goes on to say, he considers great credit is due to Mr. SHAW, for his promptness. As we do not perceive any evidence to this effect, we cannot give the praise the Colonel does; we wish to know who regulated the number of guards and breaks, and ordered the objectionable engine on behind. We consider at least four breaks and four guards were required, and three or four porters as assistants to passengers, and to carry boxes of grease and look after the shackles and wheels on the journey, at least this is the way we see some No. 1. Companies do their work.

The jury returned a verdict of *Insufficient breaks and insufficient guards, and accidental death*, to which we say, they ought to have added a *presentment*, that it is the opinion of the jury that the Board of Trade should issue a peremptory order to all railway companies to run no excursion trains without a break van and a guard to every eight carriages;—that no two excursion trains shall follow each other until a period of not less than twenty minutes shall have elapsed;—that every excursion train shall have an attendant or porter to carry a grease box and look after the shackles, and be responsible for their proper condition; that the trains shall be worked by telegraph from station to station; that no engine shall push behind any excursion train; that trains, of over twenty-five carriages shall always be drawn by two engines; that all the carriages shall be lit at night, and in tunnels; that a sufficiency of porters or attendants, either accompany a train, or shall be on the platform of each station, to attend to the passengers, and that the guards shall not leave their break vans; that red or blue lights should be immediately fired on the stoppage or other accident to any train; and these regulations should be enforced under a penalty of at least one hundred pounds.

The break vans of excursion trains are generally empty, and consequently very light, and have not the same power to stop a train when light as when loaded with passengers' luggage on an ordinary train, and we think these empty break vans should be loaded to make them useful at all. We cannot leave this subject without suggesting that Government Inspectors of Railways should do more towards inspection than they do. Their general occupation is to inspect a line previous to opening, and to attend inquests after accidents. Why not employ them to travel *incog.* on the railways, and watch that all Board of Trade regulations are attended to, and due care taken. In fact, the Government Railway Inspectors should act precisely like Government Inspectors of factories, that is, be attached to certain districts, and from time to time make their unexpected appearance particularly where excursion trains are running. They would thus become really useful, now they are little better than sinecurists.

CITY CHURCHES.

WITH great, and with just self-confidence the rector of St. Stephens', Walbrook, descends into the churchyard arena, raises his vizor, gives his name and title, and says pretty plainly that he disclaims alike the aid of the church militant of Exeter Hall, and the saintly shrivings of the priesthood of St. George's-in-the-East. The last great occasion of his public appearance was a parish temporality affair in which he was specially interested, *re GIBBS*. When, *malgre* certain former passages of private hospitality, he pursued with an acrimony, scarcely generous, the writhing, but still resisting the obstinate and injudicious, but we nevertheless believe honest alderman. Those who remember that passage of arms, are extremely likely anxiously to avoid anything like personal controversy with the Rev. Dr. CROLY, even in a public matter, and have just as much right to maintain their incognito, despite his remonstrances on an open question, as the Rev. Dr. might have to preserve his own in a newspaper or review critique, literary or theatrical, provided they have unattacked his personal and private character. Whatever may be the goodness of his cause, the Dr. has much better use of his weapon than any average combatant, and from his wide literary connection, if common fame speaks truly, he has probably the advantage of being able to change his arena and his armourer; with a known sabreur like this, men wisely hesitate to match themselves, except as nameless knights. Indeed, SELATHIEL'S force of style and statement, his vigour of metaphor, familiarity with history, dash of description, energy of denunciation give to the letters of his newspaper opponents a twaddling appearance, by comparison, which will convey to the reader's eye an impression of weakness in their cause which may really only belong to their manner.

We do not state, we do not even insinuate in the slightest degree, that Dr. CROLY is not a most excellent parish priest, in the fullest sense of that term, as far as our own parish is concerned, as we know him to be the most elegant and popular, perhaps the only very elegant and popular preacher, in the City of London; but we conceive it possible, nay, probable, that the accomplished author's literary pursuits and avocations may have been unfavourable to his investigation of the miseries and mysteries of the city courts and alleys generally, with the state of which one of his correspondents expresses himself as thoroughly dissatisfied, while Dr. CROLY congratulates the city on its remarkable propriety on Sunday, and those who often traverse it on that day are quite willing to attribute to Bucklebury the sanctity of solitude, to Cornhill the decency of desertion, and to Cheapside a desolate decorum. With his aversion to Exeter-hall notions, we are not at all prone to concede a prominent place to Dr. CROLY amongst those who have been for years labouring so earnestly, and by personal visitation and exertion, to amend the condition of the lower and lowest classes of the London poor; this has been left to men of no great literary pretensions, and who may understand a cause better than they can plead it, and we should take their word rather than the "*pro aris et focis*" flourishes of the Doctor's.

[[In the matter of churchyards he appeals, amongst other generalities, to the fate of the Revolutionists, who disinterred and insulted the dead at St. Denis and elsewhere, and proceeds to denounce judgments, with little judgment, and as if such a thing as distinction did not exist.

The repose of the dead may be disturbed, either by a rabid desire of desecration, as was the case in France, and which might really deserve, if not call down, celestial vengeance; or, secondly, from a mere cold-blooded motive of utility and profit, without the slightest reality or pretext of a religious aim; or, thirdly, with an object in view distinctly religious, and in the spiritual interests of the survivor. This confusion is just as illogical and insulting to the understanding of a reader, despite the eloquence wasted upon its statement, as the Rev. hero's wrath is absurd. Then he tells the London clergy that there has been a "chiel among them takin notes," to "cast in their teeth," and daring, with David-like presumption, to number the people of their, and even of his, congregation, as if there were any conceivable way of ascertaining facts, except by taking observations, or drawing conclusions, except by keeping record. All this affected indignation about what is most natural and necessary, is mere special pleaders' rhetoric, far worse than any silly *non sequitur* of a feeble opponent, at whom the Dr. scoffs in the plenitude of his power as a literateur, and zeal as a churchman and parish priest. Irrespective of the actual condition of the City of London, whether it is pure and decent as he describes it, or whether its alleys teem with ribald girls and blaspheming children, as described by one of his opponents—one writer desiring the maintenance, and the other

the increased efficiency of the churches—it is the office of our observer to look at tendencies. A vast change has already taken place in the City, and there is every probability that this change will still go on, man increases in ratio. The city becomes less and less, from year to year, a place of residence. Courts and alleys are likely to diminish, counting-houses and warehouses to increase, narrow streets will have to give way, and even should Dr. CROLY have a successor, and should that successor be even more eloquent than Dr. CROLY, which is not likely, he would probably expend his greater eloquence on a smaller congregation. Before very many years are over our heads it is likely that a few housekeepers and warehousemen will be the sole Sabbath tenants of most of the city houses; the smaller shopkeepers will go into the country for the day; the larger live in the environs. The city congregations, whatever Dr. CROLY may say, for the most part, are miserable now, they will be more miserable then; we cannot shut our eyes to this tendency, which is obvious enough. That there are a certain class of clergy who will stick to the churches, that is, their bare walls, as long as they yield a bare or ample living, no one can doubt; the question is whether this ought to be permitted; whether, if any better use can be made of them, and of their incomes, ten churches ought to be standing within call of each other, without sufficient congregations to fill one of them, is a question. We think not; let useful churches, or those churches which might be useful, if their incumbents were well paid and active men, those churches round which the poor still lie thick, be left, and some better use be made of the others.

In some Roman Catholic countries, where more respect is felt than in England for the mere consecrated ecclesiastical structure, these structures are desecrated with apparently little offence to the feelings of the population. Who has visited Tours, or Angers, or Toulouse, and not seen churches empty and tottering churches the storehouses of forage or grain, churches turned into markets, and the sellers of doves and the money-changers literally installed in the Temple? We have seen this, and regretted it, scarcely more than we should do twenty years hence, if we live as long, to see the London Church devoted to the curate, the clerk, the sexton, two or three hired old women, and twenty, we fear, mechanical charity children, if so many are left; while the thickly-peopled outskirts lie in spiritual destitution. Subscribe afresh and build, says the Doctor, but calls are innumerable, and the Church Commission has had already to be summoned to aid. The transference of your old structures will cost you as much as the erection of new ones—probably, he adds. That remains to be seen. We doubt it, if properly managed and without jobbery. At any rate, let the incomes be transferred. English feeling will not allow any wholesale indecent insult to the dead on a large scale; what has been done of this kind on a small one has met with abundant execration. Let the open spaces be left intact, at any rate for the present, and only used hereafter as the sites for educational or charitable institutions. This would not be desecration; neither graves nor foundations need to be deeply disturbed for some years to come.

THE FUTURE OF THE TURKISH EMPIRE.*

THE position of Eastern affairs, and the recent complications which have taken place are once more calling general attention to the probable fate of the Turkish empire. Is it true, as some publicists would lead us to believe, that it has reached the last stage of dissolution, and that it exists now only on sufferance; or, taking a more favourable view of the case, shall we say, that a moderate amount of improvement in the internal administration of the Sultan's dominions might for some time to come, at least, secure to that monarch and to his successors the undisturbed enjoyment of their territories? M. Poujade is disposed to adopt this latter view of the question, and however cautiously we may feel disposed to accept some of his statements, yet it seems quite clear to us that the decrepid condition of the "Sublime Porte" has been very much overdrawn by other historians and politicians who were too anxious to make a case for the interference of Russia, France, or some other of the leading powers of Europe.

The volume we are now noticing must not be confounded with the innumerable brochures or pamphlets which have been produced during the last twelve months; it is the result of long and intimate acquaintance with the various races of people spread over the surface of the Ottoman empire; it embodies the experience of many years, and the details it contains are derived from personal observation. Some of the chapters of M. Poujade's "Chrétiens et Turcs" will be at once recognised by the reader of the "Revue des deux Mondes," although they are now introduced in a very modified shape, having received from the writer a number of important developments suggested by the progress of political events. Our author begins his work by an introduction, or preface, in which he explains the respective attitudes of France, England, and Russia, with reference to Turkey; and he lays down as the conclusions which his narrative is destined to prove, the following threefold statement: "En resume, la France a voulu concilier l'existence et le maintien de l'empire Ottoman avec le developpement moral et materiel des Chrétiens; la Grande Bretagne a eu pour principal mobile le maintien du *statu quo* en Orient, n'accepte que les modifications devenues inevitables, et n'a vue que la satisfaction de ses interets. La Russie a poursuivi deux objets; son aggrandissement aux dépens de la Turquie,

et l'elivation de l'element Chretien sur les ruines de l'element Ottoman."

Without stopping to examine here the accuracy of M. Poujade's statement respecting the views entertained by the English, we may just remark that the proposition he endeavours to prove is naturally identified with the system of policy which he ascribes to France, noting at the same time, en passant, that he despair of ever seeing it accomplished. "L'auteur," says he in his preface, "a entrepris ce livre avec un desir sincere de trouver une solution favorable aux Turcs dans la question d'Orient: mais les evenements, a mesure qu'il avançait dans sa tache ont semble vouloir lui en montrer l'impossibilite." It would be, indeed, carrying optimism very far to suppose that the Turkish empire has any elements of vitality left, although, as we have stated in the beginning of this article, it has not yet reached the state of decrepitude and dissolution which some diplomatists pretend to notice already, because it agrees with their views and suits admirably their preconceived plans.

The chief cause which has hitherto kept up the power of the Sultan is, we believe, to be found in the divisions which separate the different Christian populations scattered over the vast extent of his dominions. Amongst the subjects of the "Sublime Porte" we find Greeks, Wallachians, Albanians, Armenians—a number of comparatively small tribes, all calling themselves Christians, but distinguished from each other by certain forms or ceremonies which, however trifling, when impartially considered, are quite sufficient to prevent anything like amalgamation between them. The Armenians do not like the Turkish rule, but they would dislike still more having to be governed by men whose sole point of disagreement, nevertheless, is a passage in the Greek ritual, or the interpretation of some liturgical trifle, of course it is the interest of the Ottoman government to favor these dissensions; and we may say with truth, that the successors of Mahomed exist on the petty quarrels and childish feuds of their Greek subjects. If the Hellenes of the nineteenth century were not that degraded set of men whom M. Edmond About has so wittily described in his "Greece Contemporaine," and in the "Roi des Montagnes," the rule of the crescent would long ago have come to an end. Such being the state of things in Turkey, and considering the example given by Montenegro and the Danubian provinces, M. Poujade has come to the very natural conclusion that the transformation of the Mahometan empire might be brought about under the shape of a federation somewhat analogous to the Swiss republic, and which would be less likely to excite the uneasiness of Russia, France, or England, than the complete union of all the provinces under the authority of a single ruler.

M. Poujade has remarked, with much truth, that it would have been far better if the religion preached by Mahomed had, like the various forms of Polytheism, claimed nothing in common with either Christianity and Judaism. It then would have immediately given way before the progress of the gospel, and the Arab tribes, for instance, snatched by the "Commander of the Faithful" from the errors of idolatry, would have become Christians, instead of stopping half way, and settling down in the professions of a creed which, after all, is decidedly hostile to the doctrines of Jesus Christ. To quote once more from M. Poujade, "loin d'être un bienfait pour l'humanité, comme certains écrivains protestants, et notamment un savant traducteur du Koran l'ont prétendu, cette nouvelle religion fut un obstacle au développement de la civilisation universelle, et arrêta la diffusion du Christianisme, c'est à dire de l'expression même la plus pure de la civilisation, sur l'Europe et l'Asie." The genius of Mahomed, in the first place, and the circumstances amidst which he appeared, favoured to an extraordinary degree the spread of Islamism; but now that the political conditions of the world has entirely changed, and that the religion of the Koran has lost so much of the influence it formerly enjoyed, symptoms of decay are manifesting themselves on every side, and the very acts of arbitrary despotism and wanton brutality which the Turkish rulers indulge in from time to time, only serves to prove that the government does not feel conscious of its existence, unless it can manifest a spurious kind of activity at the expense of the weak and the innocent. After relating several acts of cruelty which he witnessed himself, M. Poujade adds, that the local authorities commit them for the very reason that they are ashamed of their own real nullity, and that they want to give to their neighbours signs of political life. In Epirus, he continues, their domination is coming to an end. The mosques fall in ruins, and no one thinks of rebuilding them. It is just the same in various points of Turkey in Europe. On landing at Gallipoli, the allies found several mosques quite abandoned. At Pera, which is one of the suburbs of Constantinople, one can see minarets from whence the Muezzin no longer summons the faithful to prayers. The houses are tumbling down, the owners either die, or emigrate to Asia, and the only living being left amidst these ruins is the dove, mourning her plaintive song on a lonely cypress tree. At Janissa, the ruinous condition of the Turkish houses struck me at first with astonishment. I explained myself once on the subject with an old Mussulman, who used to teach me the Turkish language, and I asked him why he did not repair his own house. He smiled bitterly as if my intention had been to laugh at him. "Why," said he to me, "do you ask me a question, the answer to which you know better than I do myself? Do not the powerful nations of Europe intend to divide us between them? Our fate is already written; the strong will resist and be killed; the cowards will submit and become faithless. Why would you have me rebuild my town for the benefit of a *Giaour*!" Then, deriving a gleam of hope from the sense of the marvellous, he added, "all the Mussulmans are not doomed to perish; an enemy shall no

* Chrétiens et Turcs, Scènes et Souvenirs de la vie Politique, Militaire et Religieuse en Orient. Par M. Eugene Poujade. 8vo, Paris, Didier.

more assemblé at Damascus, and from that point the conquest of the world shall begin again."

We have selected the above very curious quotations from the second book of M. Poujade's interesting work. This book treats of Albania and Greece, besides a variety of statistical and geographical details, it contains a biographical sketch of the celebrated Ali Pasha, of Tepelen, and a very complete account of the species of feudalism which still prevails in Turkey. Our author is then naturally led to examine the question of Grecian independence, and to describe the political intercourse which has existed between the government of King Otho and the Powers of Western Europe. We must not forget that M. Poujade's duties in Turkey were those of a diplomatic agent, and by his position he has been able to collect, better than other travellers, information respecting the actual condition and probable destinies of the Ottoman Empire; that he has turned to the best account the means within his reach, will, we believe, become quite evident to the students who take him as their guide.

Book the third leads us to Wallachia, and as Ali Pasha occupied the prominent position in the preceding division, so now we find ourselves introduced to the hero of the last war, the almost equally celebrated Omar Pasha. The numerous anecdotes which M. Poujade has put together with reference to that chieftain are highly amusing, though they do not speak much for either the politeness or the forbearance of a person whose manners ought to have become refined by constant intercourse with the diplomatists and warriors of Russia, England, and France.

The position of the Slavonian tribes under the rule of the Sultan is quite as irregular, quite as anomalous, as that of the Greeks. Their religion, their institutions, and language would naturally predispose them in favour of Russia, and accordingly the aim of the Ottoman government has ever been to destroy this predisposition, even at the risk of encouraging amongst the Slavonian populations a spirit of nationality, which might in course of time be used against the Turks. Our author shows us the Sultan trusting to Polish refugees the task of propagating on the banks of the Danube the hatred of Russia, and succeeding so well in his design that the inhabitants of Servia have already taken the first step in self-government at the expense of their too-confiding rulers. "If," continues M. Poujade, "the different branches of the great Slavonian family were blended together; if the Christians belonging to the Greek and Latin communions could manage to unite; the Ottoman empire in Europe would be threatened with approaching destruction, and the Eastern question would be partly solved."

Time will not allow us to do more than mention the fourth and fifth books of M. Poujade's work. They contain a narrative of the most remarkable events which took place in the Danubian principalities during the last war: and they are full of facts, particularly valuable, because from these facts politicians can still derive motives for dealing with what certainly is one of the leading topics of the day. The author has thoroughly examined the constitution of the principalities; he knows in its minutest details the working of the government, and he is more than any one else qualified to suggest the reforms which alone would prevent another appeal to arms. In conclusion, we recommend the earnest study of M. Poujade's volume to all those who are anxious to form a correct idea of that most intricate and difficult problem:—The future of the Turkish empire. They could not possibly have a more competent *cicerone* in their researches.

TALES OF SOUVESTRE, &c.*

WE have before us a number of tales, collected into a volume, from the pen of Monsieur Emile Souvestre, a celebrated French writer of both historical and fictitious narratives. This work, which is edited by Mr. Augustus Jessopp, head master of King Edward the Sixth's school, Norwich, is intended as a reading book for more advanced pupils in the French language, and is recommended to the public as an agreeable substitute for the more tedious dissertations of "Telemachus" and "Charles the Twelfth," so universally in use in public seminaries, and whose talk alone is sufficient to frighten the student at the very outset of his labours. M. Souvestre's works are free from that injudicious tendency to lax morality which generally characterise the romantic compositions of our Gallic neighbours, being remarkable for a severity of principle and a high tone of uncompromising moral and religious sentiment, which has gained for him an honourable and lasting reputation among the graver and more thinking portion of his countrymen. His writings, which are little known to Englishmen,—in fact, Mr. Jessopp states that, with one exception, no work of this admired author has yet appeared in an English dress,—are all impregnated with deep feeling, sound philosophy, and an earnest desire for the propagation of truth. That he was followed and appreciated in his own country is demonstrated by the fact that not only after his death did his critics bestow upon him the title of the Aristides of Literature, but some years before that event took place, the Academy of France had "crowned" his "Philosophe sous les taits" as a work calculated to advance the interests of true religion and morality. From a slight memoir which the editor has attached to the present volume, we learn that the life of this excellent man was not unchequered by the usual struggles and disappointments which follow in the wake of a literary career. He was born at Morlaix, in Brittany, in 1806, and educated by his father in the strictest prin-

ciples of fortitude and self-denial. His parents had originally intended him for the Ecole Polytechnique, but the lad himself exhibiting no genius for mathematics; his tastes, on the contrary, leading him in quite an opposite direction, namely, the law. He was sent to Rennes, where in due course he graduated as bachelor, having previously obtained the highest honours the Academy had to bestow. The death of his father placing him in an independent position, Souvestre proceeded to Paris, where he proposed not only to be called to the exercise of his profession, but to enter the lists as an aspirant for literary distinction. His first effort at composition was a tragedy, entitled "Le Siege de Missolonghi," written for the Theatre Francais, with which he imagined, as is the case with all young and ardent minds, to take the world by storm, but which, after undergoing a series of heart-burnings and disappointments, he was forced to relinquish all expectation of having publicly represented.

This failure threw him into a state of despondency, from which he was only aroused by the news of a great family calamity; his eldest brother, captain of a merchant vessel, had been lost at sea, leaving a widow and child entirely dependent upon his (Souvestre's) exertions for support. This new responsibility at once called into activity all his dormant energies, and he went about from place to place earnestly soliciting employment, no matter of how humble a description; and as proof of his sincerity, did not hesitate at accepting the lowly post of a bookseller's assistant, which was offered him at Nantes, since it afforded him the means of providing for his helpless and destitute relations.

At this period of transition, which was the turning point in his career, the life of Souvestre must have been a very laborious one; his days were necessarily devoted to his shop, and his nights appear to have been chiefly employed in the exercise of his pen, a species of drudgery which no man, except one who had been educated in the most rigid principles of stoicism and self-denial, could have long submitted to without flinching or repining. After a period of adversity, however, the fortunes of our author began to assume a more pleasing aspect; his writings were beginning to attract considerable attention, and he was in due course of time accompanied by the blessing which ever attends on a pure and irreproachable life, enabled to take unto himself a partner in his labours. Unfortunately the bliss of his wedded life was not destined to last long; his wife died; the blow was a heavy one, and the nerves of the iron-hearted man were scarcely proof against the shock. At length he rallied, and in 1836 produced his "Dernier des Britons," the success of which was both immediate and decisive, and placed him upon a par with some of the leading literati of his country. Subsequently he published a work entitled "Riche et Pauvre; L'homme et L'argent," which also created a sensation, and was eagerly sought after by all classes of society. Monsieur Souvestre had been early impressed with the conviction that the literature of his country "required to be permeated with a moral and religious element," and the accomplishment of this end was the one untiring object to which he devoted the whole of his brilliant capacities. The corrupt state of society in France, previous to the revolution of 1848, was the source of much mental anxiety and depression to this excellent philanthropist. In one of his letters of this period, he thus touchingly describes his feelings:—"More often I am like the Lord Jesus—sorrowful—sorrowful even unto death! But I will do my duty, even to the end."

Souvestre died in 1854, after delivering a course of lectures in Switzerland, which were greeted with an enthusiasm which fully testified to the estimation in which his talents were held by that free and open-hearted people. It will be seen from the above sketch of Monsieur Souvestre's life and character, that of all French authors, his writings are peculiarly adapted to be placed before the perusal of our English youth. We can heartily congratulate Mr. Jessopp upon his undertaking, hoping that the present volume will meet with sufficient encouragement to induce him, in obedience to a promise held out in his preface, to present the public with a second and more complete series of these beautiful, chaste, and instructive compositions.

The eleventh volume of Hodgson's new series of novels comprises "The Wreck Ashore," an old and justly celebrated romance, the incidents of which are wrought up to such a pitch of genuine and intense excitement, as to serve to keep the imagination of the reader continually upon the stretch. This work is so well known, that the bare mention of its reproduction in its present shape will be sufficient for our readers.

THE FRENCH UNDER ARMS.*

THE name of JERROLD is worthily sustained by BLANCHARD, the son of the renowned DOUGLAS. The filial instincts are directed to the practical. Here we have him writing on MINIE rifles, and other circumstances of inglorious war. We suspect that the time is at hand when opponents will be so equally matched in the means and munition of battle that fighting itself will be impossible. Such is the fated purpose of science; such is the destined end of intellectual progress. Mind will at last have absolute dominion, and the rein of force will speedily terminate.

But what is this that BLANCHARD JERROLD has written? Something about the formation of Volunteer Corps, and how it behoves freemen to think of arms. *Arma vizumque!* That is the motto of the time. Be it so. The arms are the ENFIELD

* *Contes par Emile Souvestre.* Edited, with Notes Grammatical and Explanatory, and a Short Biography of the Author, by Augustus Jessopp, M.A., Head Master of King Edward the Sixth's School, Norwich. London: David Nutt.—*The Wreck Ashore.* A Tale Founded on Facts. By the Author of "Tales of a Voyager." London: Thomas Hodgson.

* *The French Under Arms; Being Essays on Military Matters in France.* By BLANCHARD JERROLD. G. Booth.

rifle, the WHITWORTH rifle, and the MINIE rifle, and the man is M. MINIE himself. Redoubtable BLANCHARD has been in M. MINIE's workshop at Vincennes, where he teaches the famous Chasseurs the use of the rifle, and saw him there filing or forging in his shirt sleeves. There was a little forge at hand, and on all sides were bits of armourer's machinery. The idea of attempting improvements in fire arms had struck M. MINIE many years ago. He had begun by learning particulars of everything that had already been done; he had also mastered all the details of the gunmaker's trade; he had become a working man, able to carry out his own ideas; he could fashion every part of a rifle. LOUIS PHILIPPE had rather discouraged than encouraged him in his pursuit, and threatened the innovator with dismissal. "Officials," says B. J., "resent the disturbance of familiar routine. The man with an idea is avoided rather than courted." Martyrdom and MINIE had almost become alliterative companions. Thus is it ever!

NAPOLEON the Third has acted better towards M. MINIE than the citizen-king. M. MINIE enjoys free access to the Emperor, sits down with him at the breakfast-table. On one occasion, when he sent a rifle to the Emperor, he received an acknowledgment in the shape of 20,000 francs from the privy purse. M. MINIE is always the same man; his idea is ever before him. The perfection of arms is the devouring passion of his life. Always attempting something new—always practising his arms, he may, any day, produce a great result.

Very interesting is the conversation that B. J. had with M. M. Seek it, however, in the book.

The story of the foreign legends of France is next told. France had derived great advantage from the employment of foreign troops. In estimating the glory of the first empire, most writers have neglected the claims of foreign battalions to a large share of it. Of these the Swiss have been the bravest. At the present time France does not employ mercenaries, as in the days of Louis XIV.; she has now only her foreign legions, which has won its glory in useful works, promoting Algerian colonisation. This legion has included French officers of distinction, and among these we find the name of Canrobert. The whole of this chapter merits careful perusal.

And now we meet the Zouave, with his bronzed features, his oriental gait, and his Turkish dress. His name is derived from the Arabic Zouaoua, the appellation of a valiant tribe, or rather a confederation of tribes, that inhabit the most distant passes of the Juxjura. The Zouaves originally consisted of Parisians and natives of the country surrounding Algiers. They soon began their experiences; for they had not been enrolled more than six weeks when the general in command included them in the first expedition to Medeah. They received their "baptismal fire" in the defile of Mouzain, a spot they were destined to redden with their blood and make memorable by their valour. The Zouave costume is considered at the present moment by high military authorities as at once the most striking and the most convenient soldier's uniform in Europe. The Zouaves are remarkable in the thick of a fight; but they are equally so when campaigning, for they carry but little baggage, and turn everything on their way to good account. They are the first to have fires, the first to repair torn garments, the first to have a provision of wood. With a few onions and some bacon soup is made. If there be no wine left the bread is soaked in coffee. Spirited and picturesque is the account given by B. J. of the Zouave. Scarcely inferior to it is the chapter on the Chasseurs of Vincennes. There is also an eminently characteristic and instructive chapter on Marshal de St. Arnaud. Take a passage from this exciting section.

"It would be impossible for the most skilful novelist, for the most practised and successful elaborator of dramatic incidents to exceed in tragic power the effect De St. Arnaud's correspondence has upon the mind of the attentive reader. With all the charm of familiar pleasantries—unguarded verdicts on men and events—playful endearments, realising most completely the strictly private nature of these letters now given to the world—there is a dark figure in the background, to which the eye turns constantly. This figure—struggling with an inexorable disease, impelled hither and thither by an ambition that knew no bounds; heroically rising to do battle, with the livid hues of death upon its brow—is that of the Marshal. If in the early passages of his tremendous story there be points certainly blameable—if, as on slender authority it is asserted, he acted a poor part as the spy upon a royal lady—if, in December 1851, he earned the execration of the French party against which he acted—we can hardly consent to bear even faults so grave in mind, in the presence of that death-bed after the great Crimean victory. No man ever played out his story with a courage more constant, with a perseverance in the face of difficulties, more heroic. He committed political errors, from one point of view, undoubtedly; but the correspondence, which we have examined at great length, and at which we are about to take a parting glance, goes to prove that these errors were the effect of defective education and faulty logic, and not of a cold-blooded jobbing with the destinies of his country. We must look at the Marshal as a soldier, and not as a politician. He disliked the business of the cabinet, and longed for the military command of Algeria; but when forced into the ministry, he went to work as he had been accustomed to labour in the camp. He was, perhaps, a *sabreur* of a ferocious stamp, but he played his game when France wanted a *sabreur*. He infused his spirit and his courage into every department of the public service with which he came in contact. He faced death without the movement of a muscle, and snatched from its ghastly fingers the laurels that go to make a marshal, and to finish the figure of a military hero. He loved his country, as every man must love the land where his glory grew, and for which his dangers were encountered. He was an anti-republican, if one ever breathed; but he

was an open, even a careless foe. He attacked the Republic when it commanded the army in which he served. He was inexorable in punishing its extravagant defenders, when they fell within his power. He could never realise the picture of France at once republican and glorious. Whether this leaning from the Republic towards the privileged classes—towards a strong and despotic government—be evidence of a clear mind or proof of a weak one, is a nice point; but it is one beyond the limits of the subject with which we are dealing. The despotic side was natural to De St. Arnaud's birth, his education, and his profession. We now turn to the closing pages of this correspondence, with the remark, due to the Marshal's memory, that there is nothing in all these letters to prove that he was a dishonest politician, while there is copious evidence of the greatness of his soul and the soundness of his heart. He was a doting father, a most attentive and tender husband, and a model brother. These may be minor qualities in the estimation of a public man according to some authorities, but we are inclined to regard them as lights by which we are enabled to see truly the honesty of the minister and the merits of the soldier."

Caustic, indeed, is B. J. in comparing, or rather contrasting the very different manners in which French officers and English officers are made. LORD TUPPINGHAM stands as the type of the latter—the spoiled child of rank and wealth, learned in nothing, and misdoing everything that he attempts. The French officer has been practically educated for his profession—can make his own clothes—can make his own bed. He sympathises with his men as a fellow workman. "You will find a lieutenant and a sergeant arm-in-arm on the heights of Boulogne, or drinking Lyons beer together at the *Grande Halte*, or arguing warmly over a game of dominoes. On the march you will see them chatting together. A French officer has a polite word for every inquirer." MR. JERROLD we take it, has written this book, to inflame England with a noble envy. France is a great military nation; England may become so. This book has been written to show the way to such a desirable consummation.

A MAY GARLAND.*

THE work thus entitled is a volume of poems by a lady who yet rejoices in the spring of life, and would call on others to partake her youthful delights. Her poems are divided under several heads, namely, "Religious and Moral Poems," "Songs by the Sea," "Shakspeare's Heroines," "Scenes and Hymns of Life," "Lays of Love," and "Miscellaneous Melodies." There is much merit in some of these effusions, and a tendency to finish, which we hope to see improve. At present her verse is faulty; not always certain of its feet. But there is fire and ambition. Let us test her powers with one of her Shakspeare heroines. We premise that to her four heroines she has accorded differently-coloured eyes. To *Ophelia* violet, to *Juliet* blue, to *Desdemona* black, and to *Viola* brown. Well, we will take her brown-eyed beauty.

VIOLA.

Oh she was rich in beauty's rarest dower
Her chesnut hair was banded in fair braids,
From her white brow; and in long massy waves
Fell looped up with a golden arrow there.

Her spiritual brown eyes
Upturned, gazed in your face; as softly trembled
The yielding lyre's light wire beneath her fingers.
The ripe carnation's mirrored loveliness
Suffused her snowy cheek and forehead o'er:
In her small ears were hung two matchless pearls,
And moored in safety on her heaving breast,
A rich gold cross laid like a charmed barque.
Before her lay some poems she had penned:
Tuning her lyre she sung their numbers sweetly;
Then proudly she looked up; and arched her neck
To see if aught but silence was a listener?

Here at any rate is a command over poetic diction. These four portraits, indeed, show a gift of imagination; and we should think that in narrative poetry the authoress would succeed in distinguishing character. Of her lyrical and descriptive powers the following is a favourable specimen:—

STANZAS.

Composed while sailing up the Orwell.

Sailing on the sapphire sea,
In this gay barque merrily;
While above us, in its glee,
Waves St. George's banner free!
Flag of England's noblest son,
When will thy day's work be done?
Foremost for the good to fight,—
Foremost in the cause of right,—
Waving o'er thy rosy daughters,
Sailing o'er these summer waters:
How thy red cross waveth high!
Up against the clear blue sky;
Through the banks of twinkling flowers,
Through the green enamelled bowers;
On we go in pleasure free,
Bird-like in our liberty.
On thy banks, so like the Rhine,
Gleam old castled walls sublime;
Shadowing the sunbeam's way,
Down in waters far away.

* A May Garland; or, Wayside Flowers, gathered in the spring of life." By Julia S. Blott. W. Kent & Co.

Shady nooks, all crowned with rushes;
 Sedgy banks, where water gushes.
 Here we see the steep brown rocks,
 O'er which graze the milk-white flocks;
 Little lower, we behold
 Some small emerald, set in gold;
 A fair islet, where the trees
 Whisper secrets to the breeze.
 Then we see some haunted hall,
 Peeping through its oak trees tall;
 On its windows rests the sun,
 Like a golden banner won!
 Then, a little farther down,
 Stands a village that doth crown,
 Like an eagle's nest, the brow
 Of the hill that lies below;
 While the nestling houses gleam
 Where the heavenward spire is seen;
 Then we hear the vesper bell,
 On our hearts it lays a spell;
 Benison so pure and holy,
 That we bow our spirits lowly;
 Thinking God's great heart, above,
 Ruleth lesser ones in love:
 Now behold home's city white,
 All baptised in golden light!

This is (despite a false rhyme or too) certainly, poetry of no mean order; and we shall be happy to meet again with its author.

MISCELLANEOUS WORKS.

Black's Tourist's Guide through the Counties of Gloucester, Hereford, and Monmouth, &c. Edinburgh: Black.

This is a very concise yet complete, compendious, yet comprehensive little manual, that every visitor to the localities in question should by no means omit to stow away in his carpet bag. It contains copious information about the principal towns such as Cheltenham, Bath, Bristol, Chepstow, Gloucester, Ross, Monmouth, Hereford, &c., as well as descriptive accounts of objects of interest, such as Tintern Abbey; which by the way, forms a frontispiece to the "Guide." There is, moreover, a very interesting sketch of the "Geology of the Counties of Gloucester and Hereford," by J. R. Leifchild, A.M., bound up with this little work, and containing a vast mass of facts and knowledge of a highly interesting character condensed into a very small compass, and expressed in a lucid and popular style. There are well arranged tables of contents to both parts of the work, and a copious index. The "Suggestions for Geological Excursions" will be found very useful. The "Guide" also contains a good map of the districts treated of. The name of Mr. Leifchild is a sufficient voucher for the correctness and excellence of any work on the title page of which it appears.

Reply to Professor Tyndall's Remarks in his work "On the Glaciers of the Alps," relating to Rendu's "Théorie des Glaciers." By James David Forbes, F.R.S., &c. Edinburgh: Black.

Now that the Alps and everything connected with them attract so much attention, the subject of this "Reply" is invested with an extrinsic interest, in addition to its own inherent attractions as a curious scientific question. The following passage is of such general importance and application, that we extract it with pleasure:—

"It is a matter notorious in scientific discovery, that every theory of the least importance has been precluded by the anticipations of men of sagacity and penetration, who yet wanted the skill, or the perseverance, or the opportunity necessary to demonstrate their speculations to be true. Isolated quotations from authors who formed just conceptions of a possible or antecedent probable explanation of a complex phenomenon, convey to the reader (trusting to these alone) an inaccurate conception of the exact importance of these anticipations. Seen by the light of subsequent observations and discoveries, they are incontrovertible truths; but when viewed in the aspect in which they appeared to contemporary writers, or even to the author himself,—when tried by the context of the work in which they are contained, they appear what they really are—happy conjectures, supported by general analogies, and by a few obvious or reputed facts. The history of science, if attempted to be based on such expressions alone, would become a maze of mingled truth and fiction. Hooke and Borelli would assume the position of being authors of the theory of gravitation; Grimaldi and Hooke, (again,) of the undulatory theory; De Dominis and Descartes, of the discovery of the unequal refrangibility of the rays of the spectrum; Hero and Porta, of the steam-engine; Bacon, of the aberration of light; Boerhaave and Fahrenheit, of specific heat; Wright and Lambert, of the laws of sidereal astronomy; Brugmanns, of diamagnetism; and Higgins, of atomic chemistry."

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

SPECIAL.

HANOVER, Sept. 18, 1860.

THE prospect of a united Italy, under a constitutional king, has proved a vast encouragement to the National Verein and its supporters; and I have this week to report that the grand meeting at Coburg has had a better issue than the most sanguine of impartial observers anticipated. I, for my part, fully expected a great split in the Liberal party, or rather in the National Verein, the one side advocating the so-called Prussian hegemony, the other the Imperial constitution of 1849. The result, however, has shown that the leaders were ready to sacrifice private opinion and local prejudices to one great object of the association, the union of all the States under one head, and to accept that sovereign who offered the fairest guarantee for the military and diplomatic influence of

the country and establishment of a free representative government. Every motion brought forward was almost unanimously adopted, and the original programme of Eisnach is still in full force for the entire Liberal party, that is the moderate Liberal or Gotha party; the democrats, radicals, or revolutionists, who are, indeed, the most numerous though without any organisation, ridicule the efforts of the Verein and will be satisfied with nothing less than a republic upon the United States' model. The Verein is in existence still, and that is considered to be a great success; but between unanimity of views and the attainment of the long sought for unity and central power there is a wide distance. The only hope of the Verein for the present is gradually to prepare the public mind of all the States for the supremacy of Prussia of which the most are very jealous. With regard to the motions or declarations brought forward there were but few that possessed any fresh interest except, perhaps, the following declaration:—

1. It is the chief and self-evident necessity of a truly national German policy to defend the inviolability of the federal territory.

2. It is not required by a national policy to make war with the object to maintain the possession of Venetia for the House of Austria.

3. It is, on the contrary, the duty of all Germany to resist with energy every interference in the Italian struggle that may tend to confirm and extend the encroachments of France, and that may endanger the interests and obstruct the independent national development of our country.

4. It is no less the most pressing duty of a truly national German policy to guard against the attempt to employ the military forces of Germany as a means of enslaving the Italian people, now enthusiastically fighting for their freedom and national independence.

The debates upon the several home questions mooted by the committee were remarkably animated, and the more sharp and to the point, as each speaker was limited to ten minutes time. In sympathy for the Italian cause, as also for the inviolability, all were unanimous; but there was a considerable divergence of opinion as to the policy to be pursued by Germany in case of an attack upon Venetia. While some few were in favour of German intervention for the defence of Austrian territory in the event of a war between Italy and Austria, the others were totally opposed to any interference whatever, even though France should lend her aid to Italy for the conquest of Venetia.

The Committee addressed the request to all members of the Association to exert themselves in their respective localities for the formation of rifle corps, whose aim should be to accustom themselves to military discipline, and a thorough knowledge of arms.

Among those applying to be received as members of the Association were the deposed Duke of Brunswick, and one of the sons of the elector of Hessa.

All that can be said of this meeting, which has been regarded as so important by the members of the Association, is that it remains as it was before. It is not broken up, notwithstanding the endeavours of some Governments; but fresh members are being admitted, and further subscriptions of money received. The latter do not come in with so much readiness at home as from abroad; and in one of the last numbers of the *Wochenschrift*, the organ of the Association, the Germans at home are twitted with apathy, hesitation, or indifference to the national cause. Beyond the mere fact, however, of its being as fresh and vigorous as ever it was, which is not saying much, the meeting, or congress, was nothing more than what most other meetings of late years have been—an empty demonstration. There is not a man to be found who will risk life, limb, property, or the little liberty he possesses, in an effort to carry into effect the almost unanimous wish of the whole country. It is certain that ninety-nine Germans out of every hundred ardently desire unity and a supreme chief, and every man one meets declares his willingness to fight for the object desired; but not one will move.

I have remarked in former letters that the enthusiasm for the Prince of Prussia is fast subsiding, and that the leadership of Prussia is not now regarded by the people of the smaller States as so very desirable; and it is this spirit which, in spite of the general cry for unity, which keeps many aloof from the National Verein, whose sole aim is to place the supreme power in the hands of the Prince Regent, without caring apparently whether freedom or worse slavery than that which at present exists would become the portion of Germany. If the prince were really the Liberal he is supposed by his admirers to be, and wished to see Germany great and respected, he would not hesitate to confide in the people, summon a national parliament, and get himself elected Emperor or King of Germany. This he has neither the courage to venture, nor the talent to perform. He trusts to hold his own, and perhaps in time to require a little more by means of his standing army, and centralisation, and police. It was this discontent with the conduct of the prince which gave rise to the attempt at an agitation for the *Reichsverfassung* of 1849, and though a compromise was effected by the committee of the association, I am half inclined to think it will be again put forward in opposition to the endeavours of the Prussian party.

The report of the retirement of the Protestant GENERAL BENEDEK has increased the disgust of the northern and Protestant countries, and a Germany without Austria is becoming a stronger wish than ever.

STATE DOCUMENT.

MEMORANDUM ADDRESSED BY THE SARDINIAN GOVERNMENT TO ITS REPRESENTATIVES AT FOREIGN COURTS, EXPLAINING ITS REASONS FOR ENTERING THE ROMAN STATES.

"The Peace of Villafranca, by assuring to the Italians the right of disposing of their own fate, empowered the populations of many provinces of the North and Centre of the Italian Peninsula to substitute the national government of the King Victor Emmanuel for governments subject to foreign influence.

"This great transformation has been accomplished with admirable order, without disturbing any one of the principles upon which social order is based.

"The events which have taken place in the Emilia and in Tuscany, have proved to Europe that the Italians, far from being actuated by anarchical passions, only asked to be governed by free and national institutions.

"If this transformation could have been extended to the whole of the Peninsula the Italian question would have been settled at this very moment. Far from being a cause of apprehension and danger to Europe, Italy would be henceforth an element of peace and conservation. Unhappily the peace of Villafranca could only include a portion of Italy. It has left Venetia under the domination of Austria, and it has produced no change in central Italy, nor in the provinces remaining under the temporal domination of the Holy See.

"We have no intention of discussing here the question of Venetia. It will suffice for us to call to mind that as long as this question shall not be solved, Europe cannot enjoy a solid and sincere peace. There will always remain in Italy a powerful cause of troubles and revolution which, despite the efforts of the Governments, will incessantly threaten an outburst of insurrection and war in the centre of the Continent.

"But it is well to leave it to settle this question.

"Whatever may be the sympathy which the daily increasing unhappy fate of the Venetians justly inspires, Europe is so anxiously occupied with the incalculable consequences of a war, she has so lively a desire, so irresistible a need of peace, that it would be unwise not to respect her will.

"But this is not applicable to the questions relating to Central and Southern Italy.

"Attached to a traditional system of policy which has not been less fatal to his family than to his people, the young King of Naples, from his accession to the throne, placed himself in flagrant opposition to the national sentiments of the Italians, as well as to the principles which govern civilised countries. Deaf to the counsels of France and of England, refusing even to follow the advice of a Government whose constant and sincere friendship he could not doubt, nor its attachment to the principle of authority, he rejected for a whole year all the efforts of the King of Sardinia to lead him to a system of policy more conformable to the sentiments which dominate the Italian people.

"What justice and reason could not obtain, a revolution has accomplished—a prodigious revolution, which has filled Europe with astonishment by the almost providential manner in which it has been accomplished, and excited its admiration for the illustrious warrior whose glorious exploits recall all that poetry and history can relate.

"The transformation which has taken place in the kingdom of Naples, though it has been effected by means less pacific and regular than that of Central Italy is not the less legitimate; its consequences are not the less favourable to the true interests of order and to the consolidation of the balance of power in Europe.

"As soon as Sicily and Naples shall form an integral part of the great Italian family the enemies of thrones will no longer have any powerful argument to bring forward against monarchical principles. Revolutionary passions will no longer find a theatre where most insane enterprises had chances of success, or at least of exciting the sympathy of all generous-minded men.

"One might, then, be authorised to suppose that Italy may at last enter a pacific phase of a nature to dispel European anxieties if the two great regions of the North and South of the Peninsula were not separated by provinces which are in a deplorable state.

"The Roman Government having declined to take any part whatever in the great national movement, having, on the contrary, continued to oppose it with the most lamentable obstinacy, has for a long time placed itself in open hostility with the populations which have not succeeded in throwing off its yoke. To keep them down, to prevent them from manifesting the national sentiments which animate them, he has made use of the spiritual power which Providence has intrusted to him for an object far otherwise great than that assigned to the political Government.

"By presenting to the Catholic populations the condition of Italy under false and sombre colours, by making a passionate appeal to feeling, or rather to fanaticism, which still holds so much sway in certain unenlightened classes of society, he has succeeded in gathering money and men from every corner of Europe, and in forming an army consisting almost exclusively of strangers, not only to the Roman States, but to the whole of Italy.

"It has been reserved to the Roman States to offer in our century the strange and sad spectacle of a Government reduced to maintain its authority over its subjects by the means of foreign mercenaries blinded by fanaticism or enticed by the bait of promises which could not be fulfilled, except by throwing whole provinces into distress.

"Such facts provoke, in the highest degree, the indignation of the Italians who have achieved their liberty and independence. Full of sympathy for their brethren in Umbria and in the Marches, they manifest on all sides the desire of helping to put an end to a state of things which is an outrage to the principles of justice and of humanity, and which wounds deeply the national sentiment.

"Although sharing this painful emotion, the Government of the King thought it right hitherto to prevent any disorganised attempt to deliver the populations of Umbria and of the Marches from the yoke which oppresses them. But it could not dissimulate that the increasing irritation of the populations could no longer be contained without having recourse to force and to violent measures. Moreover, the revolution having triumphed at Naples, could it be stopped at the frontier

of the Roman States, where it is invoked by abuses not less serious than those which have irresistibly drawn the volunteers of Upper Italy into Sicily?

"By the cries of the insurgents of the Marches and of Umbria the whole of Italy was moved. No power can prevent thousands of Italians from rushing from the centre and from the north of the Peninsula to the aid of their brothers threatened with disasters similar to those of Perugia.

"If the Government of the King remained passive amid this universal emotion, it would place itself in direct opposition with the nation. The generous outburst which the events of Naples and of Sicily have produced in the masses would degenerate at once into anarchy and disorder.

"It would then be possible and even probable that the regular movement which has hitherto taken place might suddenly assume the character of violence and passion. Whatever power the idea of order may exercise over the Italians, there are provocations which the most civilised people cannot resist. Assuredly they would be more to be pitied than blamed if for the first time they gave way to violent reactions, which would lead to the most lamentable consequences. History informs us that a people who are now at the head of civilisation have committed under the Empire the most deplorable excesses for less serious causes.

"Should it expose the Peninsula to similar dangers, the Government of the King would be culpable towards Italy; it would not be less so towards Europe.

"The King would be wanting in his duties towards the Italians, who have always hearkened to the counsels of moderation which he has given them, and who have entrusted to him the high mission of directing the national movement.

"He would be wanting in his duties towards Europe, for he has contracted towards it the moral engagement of not allowing the Italian movement to degenerate into anarchy and disorder.

"It is to fulfil this double duty that the Government of the King, so soon as the insurgent population of the Marches and of Umbria sent him deputations to invoke his protection, granted it to them at once. At the same time he sent a diplomatic agent to Rome to ask the Pontifical Government to send away the foreign legations which could not serve to repress the manifestations of the provinces which touch upon our frontiers without forcing us to interfere in their favour.

"On the refusal of the Court of Rome to comply with that request, the King has issued an order to his troops to enter Umbria and the Marches with the mission of re-establishing order there, and of leaving a free field to the populations for manifesting their sentiments.

"The Royal troops will scrupulously respect Rome and the territory which surrounds it. They would lend their support, should it ever be wanted, to preserve the residence of the Holy Father against any attack or menace; for the Government of the King will always know how to conciliate the great interests of Italy with the respect due to the august chief of religion, to whom the country is sincerely attached.

"In acting thus it has the conviction of not hurting the feelings of enlightened Catholics who do not confound the temporal power with which the Court of Rome has been invested during a period of its history with the spiritual power which is the eternal and immovable basis of his religious authority.

"But our hopes go still further. We have the confidence that the spectacle of the unanimity of the patriotic sentiments which now burst forth throughout the whole of Italy will remind the Sovereign Pontiff that he was some years ago the sublime inspirer of this great national movement. The veil which counsellors, animated by mundane interests, had placed over his eyes, will fall, and then, recognising that the regeneration of Italy is a decree of Providence, he will rebecome the Father of the Italians, as he has never ceased to be the august and venerable Father of all the Faithful.

"Turin, Sept. 12, 1860."

THE PROPOSED NEW COTTON COMPANY (LIMITED).

THE meeting announced in our impression of the 8th instant, when we gave a detailed notice of this company, took place on the day appointed. We give a condensed report of the proceedings. Mr. Bazley, M.P., who presided, gave a very clear exposition of the objects and advantages proposed to be achieved by the company. He said he felt that those with whom he had the honour of being now associated were performing an important public and social duty. The first supplies of cotton used in this country were from the colonies of the Spanish, French, Dutch, and Portuguese, and from Turkey. Those early sources of supply were completely exhausted, and we were almost exclusively dependent on the United States. When cotton was first needed the price was exorbitantly high, and now the rates were very moderate. During the last few years there had been very extraordinary fluctuations, and the cotton planter had not had that legitimate encouragement which a steadier rate of prices might have given him. These irregularities in prices were attributable to our limitation to one or two sources of supply. Our last year's consumption of cotton was about 1,000,000,000 lbs. weight, of which 800,000,000 lbs. came from the United States, 120,000,000 lbs. from the other foreign sources, and only 80,000,000 lbs. from British colonies. The cotton industry was of amazing pecuniary importance to this country. The aggregate amount of our labour, capital, and material embarked in it was upwards of £70,000,000 sterling. When people talked about the amount of our national revenue, they would please recollect that the great cotton industry just indicated the extent of the taxation the people were subject to. The trade was most wonderful in affording employment to people in the manufacturing districts. Four or five millions of people were directly or indirectly interested in this industry. We had, in fact, a number of people in this country dependent on the cotton industry, equal to the population of the kingdom of Belgium. The aggregate capital it employed was probably not less than £150,000,000. With a trade of this magnitude, which had arisen from no existence at all in the course of a single century, he asked, was it safe or discreet in a commercial country to depend mainly on one source of supply, and

that a foreign source, for its raw material? To his own knowledge, most excellent cotton could be had from India—cotton as good as from the United States. We had more land in British possessions capable of producing abundance of cotton than any other country. The Americans, by their extraordinary energy, would probably receive in the coming year not less than fifty millions sterling for an industry which had originated in imported labour applied to a plant that was not indigenous. Surely the sons of England could do what their friends and relatives had done across the Atlantic. It was not a mere question of philanthropy or patriotism, but a question of interest, that the spinners and manufacturers of this country could supply themselves with cotton abundantly from other parts of the world at as cheap a rate, and as good a quality, as from America or any other foreign source whatever. At present the cotton received from British India was as in good condition as that from the United States—so greatly had the supply from the latter source been depreciated in the last year or two by adulteration with sand. We should receive a more legitimate, and probably more extensive return trade from India than from any other country. Our consumption of cotton in the course of a very few years would probably be 50,000 bags per week, and there was ample room for the operations of twenty such companies as the one now proposed.

A resolution was adopted, that the draft prospectus embodied in the circular calling the meeting be approved; that the company be considered as formed when one-half the proposed capital was subscribed; and that the following gentlemen be requested to act as provisional directors:—Messrs. Bazley, M.P., J. A. Turner, M.P., J. Pender, T. Mosley, J. McConnell, and R. Birley, Manchester; W. H. Hornby, M.P., J. Radcliffe, and J. Emmott, Oldham; J. Marshall, Stockport; H. Mason, Ashton; R. Platt, Staleybridge; J. Mayall, Mossley; J. Walker, Bury; and T. Barnes, Farnworth. Mr. J. Cheetham, late M.P. for South Lancashire, and Mr. Dunlop, of Glasgow, were understood to have written letters expressive of great interest in the proposal.

The Secretary is Mr. David Chadwick, 56, Pall Mall, Manchester.

The Eclectic; or, *Neigherry Hills Gazette* is the title of a new weekly paper on liberal principles, to be shortly established at Ootacamund, in the Neigherry hills, in the Madras Presidency. Arrangements are being made to produce this journal in a style hitherto unattempted in India. The London agents are Messrs. Saunders, Otley, & Co.

KOHL'S TRAVELS.—Kohl's volumes of Travels in Canada, Pennsylvania, and New York, are, we believe, about to be issued by Mr. Manwaring, under the author's express sanction, with an additional chapter, introducing the Grand Trunk Railway, and bringing down the information to the present moment, the work of translation being confided to Mrs. Percy Sinnett.

RECORD OF THE WEEK.

HOME AND COLONIAL.

The Italian eventualities had little influence on the Money Market as last week closed, the final prices of Consols being 93½ to 3-8. The bullion in the Bank was greater than at the termination of the preceding week, being £16,233,202. Indeed, the favourable state of harvesting prospects, due to the continued fine weather, kept up a beneficial influence on the monetary relations of the week. The harvest was in great part secured up to the end of the last week, in the metropolitan and southern counties; and in the north, particularly in the Lothians of Scotland, things were upon an equally favourable footing; though the season, as a matter of course, is later than in the former localities. It is expected that upon the whole the yield will be about the average in quantity and quality. During the current week the weather has not throughout been so favourable; still, as we write, the sun is shining brightly, with a prospect of continuance. Neither the wet with which the week opened, nor foreign "eventualities," have operated to depress the money market to any appreciable extent; for instance, at mid-week Consols were at 93½ to 3-8, while Railway and other securities were in a very satisfactory state.

In the matter of the Helmsshore Railway collision, the jury returned a verdict equivalent to one of accidental death. They find that "the deaths of the ten persons resulted from a collision occasioned by a fracture of the screw coupling and side chains," but state they have "no evidence to show the cause of such fracture." They also find "that the amount of break power, and the number of guards were insufficient; and recommend the company to carry out the suggestions of Colonel Yolland in his evidence before the coroner."

Among the deaths of last week was that of Mr. David Jardine, the police magistrate. He had been for some time past a sufferer from asthma. This week we have to record the death of Mr. Joseph Locke, M.P., President of the Institution of Civil Engineers, which occurred on Tuesday, at Moffat, Dumfriesshire. In the obituary of foreign notabilities, we find the demise of Prince Milosch of Servia.

The Savoy chapel was found to be on fire on Sunday morning, but the flames were extinguished without the edifice being destroyed; considerable repairs, however, will be necessary.

At Kingston, in Upper Canada, there has been a "scene," introduced by the Orange "supers" into the highly successful drama of the "Prince's Progress, or Royalty in the Colonies." It seems the Orangemen determined to give emphatic expression to their peculiar crotchets, and to that end went about erecting an arch, and making preparations for a procession, these being, it seems, the modes whereby Orange ideas can alone be adequately made manifest and intelligible. This "idea," however, appears to have been somewhat "green" as well as "orange," and to have ultimately been "done" of a "brown" colour, for the "demonstration" was what Mr. T. Carlyle would call "squelched," by the Prince having declined to land. The Prince arrived at Toronto on the 7th, when the reception he met with is said to have exceeded in magnificence and loyalty anything of the kind previously witnessed in the course of his progress.

The home news of royalty informs us that the Queen and Court arrived at Osborne on Tuesday.

In the matter of the Stepney murder, the inquest was adjourned on

Tuesday till the 16th October; the enquiry at the Thames Police-court was adjourned till Wednesday next, the 25th instant. Emma was admitted to bail in 200*l.*; and Mullins was remanded to prison; it was necessary for the police to take energetic measures to prevent the latter from being attacked by the mob, who shouted the most fearful imprecations at him.

In the Road murder, an investigation has taken place at Beckington, the witness examined by Mr. Slack being the boy Holliday, formerly in Mr. Kent's employ. Nothing was elicited tending to throw light on the matter. Mr. Slack had not examined Mr. and Mrs. Kent or their daughter Constance.

The public health is in a favourable state. The average for last week in the metropolis, as shown by the experience of the last ten years, was 1,133. The actual number of deaths last week was 962, or 171 below the mean number, and 6 below the actual number of the previous week, which was 968. There has been one death to record from cholera during the last week. There is also a case recorded of death for want of the necessities of life.

The early closing movement is still in active progress. At a meeting of employers of Kentish and Camden Towns, a resolution has been come to for relaxing the present system. The hours of closing are to be 9 o'clock on Saturdays and 8 on other evenings.

A circular has been issued by the Horse Guards to the effect that the government has no objection "to officers permitting a certain number of men to assist in the harvest, on being applied to for such assistance."

The contest for the Championship of the Thames, on Tuesday, between Chambers, of the Tyne, and White, of London, terminated in favour of the former.

The "failures in the leather trade," of which so much has been heard, furnished a subject which occupied the attention of the Bankruptcy Court, at considerable length, on Tuesday, Messrs. Laurence, Mortimore, and Schrader, passed their examination. Mr. Linklater offered no objection, merely observing that anything further that he might have to state in the matter he should reserve till the certificate meeting.

William Slater and William Vivian, late keepers employed at Colney Hatch Asylum, who had been charged with the manslaughter of William Swift, have been tried at the Central Criminal Court this week and acquitted.

Mrs. Price has obtained a writ of *habeas corpus* requiring him to produce her before a judge, and to show cause why he had forcibly removed her from the Agapemone.

Among the holiday speeches of M.P.'s, we find one of Sir James Graham's, all about farming, delivered at the East Cumberland Agricultural Society's meeting at Carlisle, which he begun by declaring "he would not make one political allusion."

FOREIGN.

After the late news last week, to the effect that France had withdrawn her minister from Turin, and that the enlistment of foreign mercenaries by the Pope was sought to be justified by that potentate and his advisers, on the ground that France and Austria were desirous of the formation of an army by his Holiness, the intelligence that General Lamoriciere had declared the ill-starred town of Perugia in state of siege, and had menaced the inhabitants with a fine of 30,000 ducats, forfeiture of property, and death in case the wires of the telegraph were tampered with, was followed quickly by the glad tidings that this devoted city had been saved by the timely arrival of General Fanti, who overthrew the enemy in a decisive contest, and took the citadel, where the fugitives had fled for refuge, thus becoming master of the place, and of 1,600 prisoners, General Schmidt being among the number. Garibaldi had appointed Liberio pro-dictator of Naples, made preparations for engaging Lamoriciere, and declared his resolution of proclaiming from the summit of the Quirinal the consolidation of Naples with Sardinia. Pending these prompt and decisive measures of the general himself, an "excursion" of near 300 enthusiastic sympathisers, left the English shore to join his standard. Desertion was rife at Gaeta, and at Naples even members of the priesthood were fraternizing with the people.

At mid-week, the great European drama presented a "strong situation," and a concatenation of important incidents was "looming in the future." The significant article bearing the sign-manual of "Grand-gullet" had appeared in the *Constitutionnel*, chiding in no measured terms that "extreme party, who after counselling the Pope to adopt a policy without concessions, are now persuading him to retire without honour." The article says "that while the French troops remain at Rome, the person and the authority of the Pope are secure." The writer adds that "in expressing these views, we (whoever that may be interpreted to mean) have only in view the interests of the Papacy, for what complicates the position of France is the presence of French troops at Rome. If that occupation ceased, all would be simplified, at least in a political sense. It is not Rome that we occupy, it is the Papacy that we defend. Our occupation could in no case assume a political character. The first consequence of the flight of the Pope would be the evacuation of Rome by the French, and in leaving we should carry with us great uneasiness respecting the temporal power of the Pope." Meanwhile the French Ambassador has "officially announced to his Holiness," the interruption of diplomatic relations between Sardinia and France; and his Holiness appeared disposed to appeal for assistance and countenance to the European powers with about as much reason as he might offer up prayers against the advent of a comet or an eclipse, or for the cessation of bad weather, the fact being that the whole system of which he is the primitive type and outward manifestation is in a state of rapid dissolution and cannot be galvanised into life, or resuscitated by all the powers on earth. Pending these moves on the diplomatic chess-board, the "movement of deliverance" goes on with accelerated speed, the progress of the Sardinian arms having been rapid and decisive, Perugia, Urbino, Piava, Castello, Fossombrone, Pesano, Sinigaglia, and Fano being in possession of the liberating army. General Kangler, with a column of 1,000 strong, had been driven back on Ancona by Victor Emmanuel's troops. Every mile of ground not actually in possession of the French was

rapidly being occupied by the Sardinians, between whom and the forces under Garibaldi a junction was proximate, Rome being hemmed in on all sides. Lamoriciere, on the other hand, was said to be attempting, with his 9000 men, to join the Neapolitan troops who had not yet abandoned the King's cause, in which event his army would be considerably increased. At Viterbo a rising of the population had been reported, which French troops had been sent from Civita Vecchia to quell. Things being in this position, Lamoriciere, with 11,000 men, determined to attack General Cialdini near Castelfidardo, while a column of 4,000 troops made a sortie in his favour from Ancona. The result was the total rout of Lamoriciere, the capture of 600 prisoners, including General Pimodan, six pieces of artillery, a flag, and a quantity of munitions and military stores. The fleet under the Sardinian flag had opened fire upon Ancona.

After this event almost the whole Pontifical army capitulated. The Foreign troops, it was understood, would return to their own countries. Lamoriciere, with scarcely a follower, succeeded in reaching Ancona, through the defiles of Monte Canaro. All the remnant of the Pontifical army were cooped up in Ancona, not a handful of stragglers undispersed or untaken being found outside. On Wednesday evening, occurred the death of General Pimodan. It is asserted that Garibaldi, in respectful but energetic terms, has demanded of Victor Emmanuel the dismissal of Cavour and Farini, as the *sine qua non* of an *entente cordiale*. The King's reply had not been divulged: great agitation was exhibited at Turin. Garibaldi has required 30,000 Sardinian troops to garrison Naples. The head quarters of the Sardinian army in the Marches had been established at Tolentino. General Masi's column was "operating" towards Viterbo. At Terni the population had risen in arms, and a Provisional Government been established.

The Sardinian government has addressed a general memorandum to the various foreign courts through the ostensible medium of its accredited agents justifying the entry into the Marches with an armed force; the grounds of justification stated are that it was an interference in the cause of order, and intended to control the "revolution" that could not be prevented. In this document Garibaldi is called "illustrious," and it even goes the length of saying that "his glorious exploits recall all that poetry and history record." A "special" communication to France seemed to have oozed out, taking the same line of argument, and adding that Garibaldi (the "illustrious," &c.) had significantly hinted, that unless Sardinia took the step she has done, he would at once march upon Rome. *Après* of Rome, the state of the Pontifical exchequer was said to have rendered a disbanding of troops necessary.

The rapprochement of Austria and Russia is progressing in the most approved style. "Austria" gave a grand banquet in honour of "Russia's" birthday, in response to a similar compliment that had been received from his worthy *confère*, and drank "Russia's" health with three times three. "France," it is said, looks excessively awry at all these symptoms of cordiality, and is even said not to relish the idea of "England's" intended visit to her son-in-law "Prussia." Meanwhile the march of events goes on quite irrespective, as regards the average results, and the ultimate issues of European affairs—of the moves and combinations of the political chess-board, and all its ephemeral plumes.

The Austrian "Council of the Empire" is unanimously of opinion that "something must be done" with regard to the relaxing that system by which "religious freedom" and "liberty of conscience" are at present held completely in abeyance. The protestants seem disposed to agitate for a revision of the Concordat, and to be satisfied with nothing less; this is merely a question of time.

The press of Prussia deprecate the lending of aid to Austria in case of her attempting to re-establish "legitimacy," (that very illegitimate and sinister descendant of "right divine") in Italy, and the press of Germany declares that Austria does not intend attempting any such thing. A wonderful symptom of reform has just been made manifest in Austria. As an *experiment*, but nothing more—it is said, the Government is actually about to adventure a trial of *verbal examination of witnesses in the Courts for administering justice in maritime and mercantile matters*. But this is not all; should the experiment succeed the same "innovation" will be introduced into other Courts of Justice. Austria really seems destined, in course of time, to cease being a mediæval state, and to adopt the usages of modern civilisation.

Another attempt against the life of the French Emperor is reported, and this time from Toulon, where a person levelled a pistol at him, but a female present threw up the arm of the intending assassin, who, it is given out, is a lunatic. The French Emperor arrived at Algiers early in the week.

ENTERTAINMENTS.

HER MAJESTY'S THEATRE.—The "English and Italian" Opera Season will commence at this house on Monday, October 8. Among the tenors announced are Mr. Sims Reeves, Mr. Swift (from Florence), Mr. Parkinson, Mr. George Perren, Mr. Terrott; while among baritones we find the names of Mr. Rosenthal, and Mr. Stanley; and among the basses Mr. Patey, Mr. Bartleman, and Mr. Hurmann. Among the sopranos are the distinguished artistes Miss Parepa, and Madme. Lemmens Sherrington; while Madme. Laura Baxter, and Miss Fanny Huddart are in the list of contraltos. We have confined our catalogue to the English artistes, as the Italian company of this house is perfectly well known. The conductors will be Mr. Halle and Signor Ardit. Among the forthcoming new works is a new opera, composed expressly for this theatre, entitled "Robin Hood," the music by Mr. Macfarren; and also a new grand opera, entitled "The Amber Witch," the music by W. V. Wallace.

HAYMARKET THEATRE.—Miss Florence Haydon, from the Dublin Theatre, whose first appearance at this house we announced last week, has been completely successful. Owing to the accident which befel Miss Sedgwick, the "Overland Route" has been continued during the week, Miss Haydon making her first appearance before a London public in that piece on Monday, and Mr. W. Farren, also for the first time, sustaining the part of *Tom Dexter*. The other pieces that have been given are "Fitzsymthe of Fitzsymthe Hall," and "The Fish out of

Water," in which Mr. Buckstone and Mr. Compton sustain their well known characters. To return to Miss Haydon, she has a prepossessing appearance, a pretty face, an elegant figure, evinces intelligence in her reading, and seems to understand stage business well, and to have been carefully educated for her profession; she is in every respect a promising actress. Next Monday Miss Amy Sedgwick, having, we are happy to hear, recovered from her indisposition, will appear in Mr. Edmund Falconer's new and successful play of "Does He Love Me."

OLYMPIC THEATRE.—Mr. Horace Wigan's new farce, "Savage as a Bear," already announced by us as forthcoming, was produced here on Monday. The pivot on which the piece turns is analogous to that of a French piece, the title whereof being translated is "The Bengal Tiger." One Mr. Griffin (Mr. F. Robinson), who might have been a real instead of a fabulous animal, and called Mr. Brewin (for he is the "bear,") is a man of jealous proclivities, and suspects his wife (personated by Miss Marston) of exercising the "Sovereignty of the individual" (*cide* Mill "On Liberty,") to the extent of having two strings to her bow (beau?) even after the sedative operation of matrimony. The "favoured" individual he suspects to be a very proximate neighbour, one *Jeremiah Jujube* (a good name for a sweet-heart certainly), represented by Mr. H. Wigan. To remove the cause of her husband's anxiety, Mrs. Griffin writes for Jujube, with the view of entreating him to make himself scarce, he being, somehow or another, always turning up, though quite "promiscuously" (to employ a cockney figure of speech) under the jealous husband's nose. But this is only a transition from the frying-pan into the fire, for Jujube leaves his stick behind him, which is eagerly pounced upon by Griffin as the proof positive, which he has long been eagerly seeking, of—his own shame. Jujube, returning for his stick, is frightened out of his wits, and out of the house, by Griffin's violence, leaving yet additional proofs of his second appearance. At length, things being at the worst, begin to mend; the truth is flashed upon the Griffinian mind and all is satisfactorily settled. The author was called for at the end of the piece, and announced it for repetition.

STRAND THEATRE.—On Monday the performances of this house wound up with Messrs. Yates and Harrington's new farce "Hit him! he has no friends." Mr. Rodney Ricketts (Mr. J. Rogers) a very respectable but very timorous trunk maker, of Tooley-street, is about to marry in haste that he may repeat at leisure, a young lady named Miss Verner, whose brother Edward having seen an advertisement offering a reward for another Ricketts, who has deserted his wife and three children, mistakes his sister's lover for the man, and proceeds first to thrash him almost to death, and then to follow him with a brace of Col. Colts rifled pistols, to effect his utter destruction. Poor Rodney runs away to Canterbury where his lady-love, having discovered the mistake follows, but luckily for the audience, who thereby would lose no end of fun, she is not able to clear up the matter until a variety of laughter-exciting incidents have occurred. Rodney's fright causes him to be taken for a madman, and the "Boots" of the "Red Lion," one *Joe Crabbs* (Mr. H. J. Turner), who belongs slightly to the Sayers and Heenan school, and gives some manifestation of his proficiency in the "noble art," is deputed to keep watch and ward over him till his friends come to fetch him. This conduct on the part of "Boots" naturally appears so strange to Rodney, that he in turn takes Joe for a madman. Upon this hinges a vast amount of drollery. But the unhappy denizen of Tooley-street is not near the end of his troubles yet. In comes Mr. Ricketts, and the three "orphans," two of whom clutch him by the legs, each taking one, while the third in the shape of a baby in long clothes is thrust into his arms. At length the mother "recognises" a stranger—to use an Hibernianism—in the person of her supposed husband. In addition to this shock to the cockney's nervous system Edward Verner rushes in with his "Colts," and instead of a baby, Mr. Ricketts find a pistol thrust on his reluctant acceptance this time, wherewith he is to mix in deadly conflict with his pursuer: but his hand shakes so, it goes off, frightening him half to death with the notion that he has shot himself. The noise, however, brings Miss Verner and others to the spot, and upon the principle that all is well that ends well, every body is satisfied, not forgetting the audience, which was crowded and exuberant in its applause. In the burletta of "Fra Diavolo, or the Beauty and the Brigands," that incomparable danseuse, Miss Rosina Wright, whose style is remarkable alike for spirit and for grace, for vivacity, elegance, and vigour, went through some of her saltatory exploits to the immense delight of the audience. The other pieces were "The pet Lamb" (noticed in detail in our last number), and "Observation and Flirtation."

THE STANDARD THEATRE.—Mr. Barry Sullivan and Miss Marriott are still drawing crowded houses at this admirably-conducted establishment. They appear nightly in one of the masterpieces of the higher drama: "The Gamester," "Money," "The Lady of Lyons," "Macbeth," "Richard the 3rd," &c., followed by popular and favorite after-pieces; both being judiciously selected and changed, with a view to the essential elements of novelty and variety, have been placed on the stage with powerful casts, and in a style reflecting the highest credit on the management.

SURREY THEATRE.—The opening of this house on Saturday last we announced in our last number. We now proceed to give some account of the two new pieces produced, namely, "Ralph Gaston, or the Three Lives," and "The Veteran and his Son." The plot of the first of these pieces is as follows:—Mr. Gaston, a yeoman, has two children, Lilian and Ralph, the former of whom is seduced, and the latter caused to be transported by a certain Sir Everard Dudley. Ralph forms a resolution to inflict condign punishment on the man who has wronged his family, and returning from transportation in a vessel which is wrecked and all lives lost but his own, gets possession of the papers and property of one Clement Rathbone, a passenger, to whom he had previously been assigned on a ticket-of-leave. Arrived in England, his sister and father dead and the family estates leased upon "three lives," of which that of the seducer is one, he begins to execute his scheme of vengeance, appearing alternately in his own proper person, and as the deceased Clement Rathbone. The daughter of his sister Lilian, is sought to be served by the son of Sir Everard as the father served her mother, but Ralph gets them on board a yacht, which he blows up with gunpowder. At length the purpose of the story being worked out, in Lilian's daughter being put in possession of the family estate

Ralph is charged with having made away with Rathbone, and his sudden death in a paroxysm of excited feeling places him beyond the reach of all earthly troubles. Mr. Creswick personates the double character of *Ralph Gaston* and *Clement Rathbone*, the duplicate hero of the piece, with great spirit, versatility, and graphic power. The funny character of the piece is *Jem Maggots*, an idiot, who follows Ralph with hardly the intelligence, though even more than the fidelity of a dog, and who is represented by Mr. C. Rice with considerable drollery and comic humour. The plot of the second piece, "The Veteran and his Son," is in this wise:—Colonel Delorme wants his son Victor to be married to his niece *Blanche*, and to settle down as an agriculturist, but the girl, as a matter of course, wants anybody but whom she is wanted to have, and with the deplorable caprice too often exhibited, has her affections trapped by the gaudy livery of a young jackdaddy officer. Master Victor, in order to "cut out" his rival, turns soldier himself, and having committed a more than average amount of legitimate murders, obtains a captaincy, and is rewarded with his cousin *Blanche* in marriage, she having been left in the lurch by her quondam lover, who has taken up with an Arab sweetheart. The "grand spectacular" portion of the drama belongs to the part that is laid in *Algeria*, where in addition to the heroes and heroines already mentioned, who are continually engaged in enacting a truly awful account of heroism, we stumble over another "funny character" in the shape of a cockney blackguard, who had first seen the light within the sound of Bow bells, but whom capricious fortune has transported to another quarter of the globe, and transformed into a Grand Vizier—*Bar-Bi-Kan*—personated with a degree of mirth-compelling power by Mr. C. Rice, that the audience evidently consider quite irresistible, and in which they are not far out. The part of Victor is excellently sustained by Mr. Shepherd, who endows it with the highest amount of vigour and movement. The dresses, stage effects, scenery, properties, &c., are all first-rate, and both pieces are produced in a style highly creditable to the management. The audience consisted of dense human masses wedged into every atom of space that pit, boxes, and gallery afforded, and which seemed quite explosive with delight and enthusiasm.

MARYLEBONE THEATRE.—Mr. Cave, the enterprising lessee of this convenient theatre, having set his house in order in the sense of thoroughly redecorating and renovating it in a style to which the term "magnificent" is certainly not inappropriate, opened the season on Monday with a new and telling drama in three acts. Mr. W. Travers, well-known as an actor and dramatist, has succeeded in working up the perilous adventures, hair-breadth escapes, and final doom of "Cartouche, the French Housebreaker," into a most effective play with a most impressive moral, shewing that the instinct of self-preservation operating among men on a large scale almost infallibly causes it to come to pass that "crime receives its punishment," at the end of even the most successful career of guilt. The leading parts are appropriately and efficiently filled by Mr. W. Travers himself, who enacts the hero of the piece (*Cartouche*), Mr. W. Shalders, *Pierre Bobilet*, a guard *Bourgeois*; Mr. Harry Bolton, *Gribichon*, the French *Blueskin*; Miss E. Barnett, *Louise*, *Cartouche's* bride; Miss H. Love, *Eugene de Grandlieu*; and Miss Lizzy Marshall, *Can-Can*. There are no less than twenty dramatic persons, enumerated nomination (besides the usual concomitants of soldiers, &c., &c.), including *Cartouche's* gang, in which we find a number of desperate specimens of the "dangerous classes," under the characteristic soubriquets of the *Lion*, the *Wolf*, the *Tiger*, the *Bear*, the *Ferret*, the *Eel*, and not the "talking," but the "sucking" *Fish*, which we would advise the proprietors of the deceased "talker" to try and catch without delay. Of the success of the piece, from the crowded audiences it is drawing, there can be no question. The other piece given was Mr. Edward Stirling's drama of the "White Slave," in which Mr. J. F. Young sustained the character of *Bill Bullseye* and *Elinore* was represented by Miss H. Love. The new scenery (by Mr. W. Shalders), stage properties and effects, are all appropriate and excellent.

EASTERN OPERA-HOUSE.—It is now a month since the opera in its highest and most complete form was inaugurated as a permanency at what, in its primitive state, and before its rehabilitation, had been known as the Theatre Royal Pavilion, and we are therefore now in a position to judge of its status and prospects. To do this we should take an opera of average merits and attractions (not performed for the first time so as to draw in respect of the circumstance of novelty), and with the usual stock-cast of the company. In these elements we have the fair medium data upon which to form a judgment, and we find them all concurring last Wednesday evening. The opera was the English version of "Sonambula," it was not a first performance. The artists who appeared have been playing ever since the house opened, in this and other works. It was cast as follows:—The *Sleep-walker*, Madame Lancia; *Eleino*, Mr. Parkinson; *Lisa*, Miss Leng; *Count Rodolfo*, Mr. Rosenthal; *Alasio*, Mr. O. Summers. Such are the premises; the conclusion, a house crowded from pit to gallery; the mass of faces seen from the proscenium boxes being almost as thick and quite as delighted and enthusiastic as on the opening night, which shews that the multitudes who then assembled were not drawn together merely by the novelty of Mr. Douglas's enterprise. The opera was excellently performed. Madame Lancia's vocal and histrionic powers seem rather to be freshened and invigorated, by incessant work, than fatigued or impaired. Miss Leng in this as in the other pieces in which we have seen her, does her part well and shews good taste and judgment. Mr. Parkinson's voice, reminding us in timbre of the "English Rubini." Sims Reeves, was heard to great advantage, his holding note in "Now so Gently," (B flat), coming out pure, rich, and sonorous, elicited a storm of applause, and was followed by a unanimous and decisive encore. Madame Lancia's aria at the finale, "Do not Mingle," was an equal success, and her acting throughout as well as her singing were characterised by the highest qualities of an operatic artist. Mr. Rosenthal was a gentlemanly Count, and made the most of a part in which there is so little to do; and Mr. Summers was a very droll and amusing *Alasio*. In the private boxes, among other visitors of note, we observed Mdle.

Parepa, who seemed much interested in the performances, and accorded them a degree of attention to which from the excellence that characterised them, they were certainly entitled.

MR. G. W. MARTIN'S PRIZE GLEES AND NATIONAL PART SONGS.—Mr. G. W. Martin has established a high reputation as a composer of, and as having obtained prizes for, glees, madrigals, and part songs, which unquestionably rank among the most perfect specimens of the kind ever written. He is also well-known for his skill and aptitude in organising choirs on a scale of gigantic magnitude. Indeed, he is now vigorously prosecuting the formation of a national choir which for its colossal proportions will not have an equal in the world. On Saturday last a performance of Mr. Martin's compositions and arrangements took place at the Crystal Palace, when the choir numbered 2,000 voices, male and female. The original compositions given were "The Cuckoo," "The Army and Navy," "The Hemlock Tree" (words by Longfellow), "Defence not Defiance," "The Evening Star," "All hail! Thou lovely Queen of Night," "Is she not beautiful," "Our Saxon fathers," "The Rifle," "The Volunteer's choral March." The adaptations consisted of "Auld Lang Syne," "The last Rose of Summer," "Scots wha ha," "Rule Britannia," and the "National Anthem," with which the performances terminated. There was an immense audience, who applauded heartily throughout, and joined in chorus with the last two pieces. The re-demanded pieces were numerous, but not all those encored were repeated, for the performance was continued without the usual interval for rest, and towards the latter half the choir and their indefatigable leader may be supposed to have been somewhat tired. Mr. Martin received an "ovation," both on taking his place and on retiring, when the choir cheered him heartily, waving hats and handkerchiefs. The effect of the massive volumes of sound issuing from 2,000 well-exercised throats at once was grand and overpowering. Some of the melodies, the "Hemlock Tree," and "The Evening Star" in particular, are beautiful in the extreme. It will be interesting to Volunteers and the public generally, to know that Mr. G. W. Martin is now organising a choir of several hundred Volunteers, for the purpose of introducing the practice of singing choral marches when on the march. A great meeting of Volunteers on the subject will shortly be held in either the Floral or Exeter Hall, and subsequently at the Crystal Palace. No Volunteers will be admitted on these occasions unless in uniform; and Volunteers interested in this movement, can send their names to Mr. Martin, at his publishers, Cramer and Co., or Addison and Co., Regent-street.

THE NEW PICTURE OF THE "PRESENTATION IN THE TEMPLE."—A new painting by Mr. Robert Dowling, of the "Presentation in the Temple" is now on view at Messrs. H. J. Betjemann & Sons, 25, Oxford-street. Mr. Dowling, we understand, is but young as a man, and still younger as an artist, at least in years; but to judge from the present work his talents have decidedly attained a very considerable, if a very precious, maturity. Having passed the greater part of his life in Australia, in pursuits altogether unconnected with the vocation of which he bids fair to become a distinguished master, he returned to England, and it is only, as we understand, within the last three years that he has taken to his present profession. Such proficiency as the present works exhibits, achieved in so short a period, gives token of no ordinary genius, while it evinces indefatigable powers of study and application. The drawing and the colouring are alike excellent. The grouping is dexterously and effectively managed, the contrasts of the faces, the figures, the attitudes are admirable, and the ensemble of the work considered in its totality, as well as the details in their minute particulars, will command no stinted measure of praise. Simeon with the infant Jesus resting on his left arm, while the right hand and face are raised towards heaven, as in the act of prayer, and the Virgin with clasped hands, and an expression of mingled reverence, joy, and sadness depicted in her countenance, may be supposed listening to the ominous words "Yea, and a sword shall pierce through thy own soul also!" The effects producible by a judicious management of light and shade are seen in the white beard and under robe of Simeon and the child's dress. Joseph, with the birds for sacrifice, forms a prominent figure in the group, as does also Anna the prophetess; the positions and attitudes of these four figures being nicely adjusted and balanced. The national characteristics of physiognomy are well and faithfully preserved, as seen in the Nubian and the Greek towards the left. Self-righteousness and self-assertion, not to say self-conceit, with a materialistic boldness and a dash of sensuality, and a keen penetrating scepticism, are well blended and contrasted in the Pharisee and Sadducee, who are among the lookers on, and fill up the space between the Virgin and the Prophet; and disappointed self-esteem, verging upon a spiteful envy, set off by the uncognate sentiment of eager curiosity, are portrayed in the countenances of the two women on the right. We believe Mr. Dowling is engaged on another work, of which considerable expectations may be formed, for from what he has already accomplished, there is reason to infer that he will become a really great painter.

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